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**A**  
**FRENCH GRAMMAR;**

**OR,**

**PLAIN INSTRUCTIONS**

**FOR THE**

**LEARNING OF FRENCH.**

**IN A SERIES OF LETTERS.**

---

**BY WILLIAM COBBETT.**

---

**New-York :**

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A

# FRENCH GRAMMAR.

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TO  
MR. RICHARD COBBETT.

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## LETTER I.

OF THE UTILITY OF LEARNING FRENCH.

MY DEAR LITTLE SON,

1. BEFORE we set about learning any thing, be it what it may, it is right that we ascertain the thing to be such as is likely to be useful to us; and it is but reasonable that the usefulness should, in point of magnitude, bear a just proportion to the expense, whether of money or of time, demanded by the task which we are going to encounter. If I did not think the French language a thing of this character, I certainly should not wish you to learn it. But a very little reflection will convince you, that it is a branch of learning, which, in the present age, stands, in the scale of importance, next after that of our native language.

2. It would be tedious, my dear Richard, to enumerate *all* the reasons for learning French: but, when I tell you, that the laws of England were, for several centuries, written and administered in French; that some of the present statutes stand in that language; that a great part of the law terms in use at this day, are also French; were I to tell you only this, you would, I hope, see a motive

I\*



more than sufficient to induce you to undertake the learning of this language; especially when you find that I have done all in my power to render the undertaking easy and pleasant.

3. There are, however, many other motives of equal, and some, perhaps, of greater weight. The French language is the language of all the *courts of Europe*. The cause of this is of no-consequence: the fact is all that we have to do with here; and that is undeniable. Then observe, that, though each of the *great* nations of Europe generally insists that the treaties, to which it is a party, shall be in its own language, or in *Latin*; yet, the French is, in spite of all the efforts that have been made to prevent it, the universal language of *negociations*. Few, indeed, comparatively speaking, are the persons employed in this way; but, the instances, in which, for purposes connected with war, or with foreign commerce, it is necessary to be master of the French language, are by no means few, or of little importance.

4. In the carrying on of trade, and in the affairs of merchants, it is frequently absolutely necessary to be able to speak and to write French. A young man, whether in trade of wholesale or of retail, and especially in the counting-house of a merchant, is *worth* a great deal more when he possesses the French language, than when he does not. To travel on the continent of Europe without being able to speak French, is to be, during such travelling, a sort of *Deaf and Dumb* person. Humiliation and mortification greater than this it is hardly possible to imagine; and these will be by no means diminished by the reflection, that we owe them to our own want of attention and industry.

5. Though many of the French books are translated into English, the far greater part are not; and, in every branch of knowledge, great indeed is the number of those books which it may be useful to read. But, were there only the pain arising from the want of a knowledge of French, when we

fall into a company, where we hear one of our own nation conversing with a Frenchman, this alone ought to be more than sufficient to urge a young person on to the study. I remember a young lady, in Long Island, who had been out on a visit to a house where one of the company happened to be a French lady who could not speak English, and where a young American lady had been interpreter between this foreigner and the rest of the company; and I shall never forget the manner in which the first mentioned young lady expressed the sense of her humiliation: "I never, before," said she, "in all my life, felt *envy*: but, there was Miss —, first turning to the right and then to the left, and, at each turn, changing her language; and there sat I like a post, feeling myself more her inferiour than I can describe."

6. It is really thus. This talent gives, in such cases, not only an air of superiority, but also a reasonable and just claim to real superiority; because it must be manifest to every one, that it is the effect of attention and of industry, as well as of good natural capacity of mind. It is not a thing like dancing or singing, perfection in the former of which is most likely to arise from an accidental pliancy of the limbs, and in the latter, from an organization of the throat and lungs, not less accidental: it is not a thing of this sort, but a thing, the possession of which necessarily implies considerable powers of mind, and a meritorious application of those powers. Besides these considerations, there is this: that by learning French *well*, you will really become more thoroughly acquainted with your own language. If Dr. JOHNSON had known the French language, he could not have scarcely committed any of those numerous blunders (relating to words from the French) which are contained in his Dictionary, and of which I will here give you a specimen. He has this passage: "RABBIT: a joint made by *paring* two pieces of wood, so that they wrap over one another." Then, the verb he has

thus: "TO RABBET: to *pare down* two pieces of wood so as to fit one another." The Doctor meant "to *make* them fit one another." But to our point: The Doctor says, that TO RABBET comes from the French verb RABBATRE, which means to *bate*, or *abate*, to *bring down*. So, says the Doctor, *to rabbet* comes from *rabbatre*; for, the wood is *brought down* by the carpenter's tool! What! Doctor? to *bate*, *abate*, the wood! This is far-fetched indeed. Now, if the Doctor had known French only tolerably well, he would have known that RABOT is a carpenter's *plane*; that *raboter* is to *plane* wood with a carpenter's plane; and that boards fitted together by means of the plane, and not by means of the saw, the chisel, or other tools, are boards *rabotés*, or, in English, *raboted*. How plain is all this! And how clear it is, that we have here got a piece of nonsense in our language, because Dr. JOHNSON did not know French!

7. Having now spoken of the motives to the learning of French, I shall, in the next Letter, speak of the *way to go to work*, and *how to proceed* in order to accomplish the object. Before, however, I proceed farther, let me explain to you the meaning of the numerical figures which I have used here, from 1 to 7. Each of the portions of writing, distinguished by these figures respectively, is called a *paragraph*; and, as you, in the course of the letters that I am addressing to you, will find yourself frequently directed to look at parts of them, other than the part which you are then reading, you will more quickly find the thing which you want, by being referred to the *paragraph*, than you would, if you were referred to the *page*.

8. The hope which I entertain of seeing you write, and of hearing you speak French correctly, is, I am sure, equalled by the desire which you have not to disappoint that hope. My dear little son, I beg you to remember, that to succeed in an undertaking like this requires great assiduity and perseverance; but, remember also, that nothing is justly

gained without labour of some sort or other ; and, bear constantly in mind, that, in proportion to your increase in knowledge and talent, will be the increase of the satisfaction of your affectionate father,

WILLIAM CORBETT.

Kensington, 17th June, 1824.

---

## LETTER II.

ON THE WAY OF GOING TO WORK AND OF PROCEEDING  
IN THE LEARNING OF FRENCH.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

9. It is not sufficient that the thing we seek to gain is useful in its nature ; nor is it sufficient, that, in addition to this, we are assiduous and persevering in the pursuit of it : we must go the right way to work, set out and go on in the right path ; or our labour, if not wholly lost, will be, in great part, at least, spent in vain.

10. Parents innumerable well know, that young people of good capacity frequently spend year after year in what is called *learning French* ; and that, at the end of the time, they really know very little of the matter. Out of a thousand of those who are usually, at the schools, denominated "*French Scholars*," there are, perhaps, not twenty who ever become able to write a letter or to hold a conversation in French. How did it happen, then, that I, who had every disadvantage to make head against ; who began to study French in the woods of North America, in 1791 ; who crossed the Atlantic ocean twice between that year and 1793 ; how did it happen, that I, who had never had a master to assist me but one single month in 1792, should, in 1793, write and publish, in the French language, a Grammar for the teaching of French people English ; which Grammar, first published at Philadelphia, found its way to France, and has long been, for the

purpose for which it was intended, in general use throughout all the countries of Europe?

11. True, I was very assiduous, very persevering (as I trust you will be), and I had also good natural capacity: but, my firm belief is, that in these respects, I did not exceed any one of thousands upon thousands, who, after years of expense to their parents and of torment to themselves, give up the pursuit in disgust, from perceiving that they have really learnt nothing that is worthy of being called French. Nor is this result at all surprising, when we come to look into the books called "*French Grammars*," where we find such a mass of confusion, that the wonder is, not that so few persons learn French, but that it is ever learned by any one at all.

12. I found it necessary to make a sort of Grammar for myself; to write down the principles and rules as I went on; to pick my way along by means of the *Dictionary*; to get over the difficulties by mere dint of labour. When I afterwards came to teach the English language to French people in Philadelphia, I found that none of the Grammars, then to be had, were of much use to me. I found them so defective, that I wrote down instructions and gave them to my scholars in manuscript. At the end of a few months, this became too troublesome; and these manuscript instructions assumed the shape of a *Grammar* in print, the copy-right of which I sold to Thomas Bradford, a bookseller of Philadelphia, for a hundred dollars, or, twenty-two pounds, eleven shillings and sixpence; which Grammar, under the title of *Maître d'Anglois*, is, as I have just observed, now in general use all over Europe.

13. The great fault of all the French Grammars, that I have met with, is that which, as, Mr. Tull tells us, Lord Bacon found in the books on farming and gardening; namely, that they contain no *principles*: or, in other words, that they give us *no reasons* for our doing that which they tell us we must do. Indeed, these Grammars are, as far as my observation

has gone, little more than masses of *rules of vocabularies*, and of *tables* ; things heaped together, apparently, for the express purpose of loading the memory and of creating disgust. These Grammars take the scholar into the subject without any preparation ; they give him no clear description, or account, of the thing which he is going to learn ; their manner of going from one topic to another, is so abrupt, that all is unconnected in the mind of the scholar ; they seldom, or ever, give him any *reason* for any thing that he is instructed to do ; they never explain to him that which he does not understand by that which he does understand ; and, in short, they are of very little use to either master or scholar.

14. In the Grammar, which I am now writing for you, I shall endeavour to make the undertaking as little wearisome as possible. But, even here, I should observe to you, that a foreign language is a thing not to be learned without labour, and a great deal of labour, too. It is a valuable acquisition ; and there must be value given for it. It is a thing to be purchased only with labour, and the greater part of that labour must be performed by the scholar.

15. I have to perform the double task of teaching you *Grammar*, and of teaching you *French*. If you knew your own language grammatically, the undertaking would be much easier for me and much easier for you ; but, let it be remembered, that, in proportion to the greatness of the difficulty is the merit which justice awards to success. I have adopted the epistolary form, that is, I write in the form of *Letters*, for the sake of *plainness*, and, at the same time, for the sake of obtaining and securing your *attention*. We are naturally more attentive to that which is addressed *to us*, than we are to that which reaches our ear or our eye as mere unpointed observation. You do not yet know what it is that grammarians call *impersonal verbs* ; but, in giving instructions, the impersonal mode of speaking must be less forcible, as well as less clear than the personal.

"You must take care," is a very different thing from "care must be taken;" or, it has, at any rate, a very different effect upon the reader.

16. The manner in which I propose to proceed in the teaching of you, is this : First, I shall, in Letter III., explain to you what Grammar is, what is the meaning of the word. I shall, then, in Letter IV., teach you what are the different parts of speech, or sorts of words. I shall treat of the nature and use of each of these sorts of words, or parts of speech ; and, at every stage, I shall show you, in the plainest manner that I am able, the difference between your own language and the French language ; for, this it is that you want to learn ; to be able to say in the latter that which you are able to say in the former. That part of Grammar which distinguishes one part of speech from another, which treats of the relationship of words, and which shows how, and under what circumstances, and for what purposes they change their form ; this part of Grammar, is called *ETYMOLOGY*. When, therefore, I shall, in Letters from V. to XII., inclusive, have gone through the Etymology of all the parts of speech, taking care to keep constantly before you the difference between the French and English languages, I shall, in Letter XIII., give you some *Exercises* in order to fix firmly in your memory the nature and properties of each of the parts of speech. I shall next go to the *Syntax*, or the putting of words into sentences. But, before I do this, I shall stop you a little to learn the *Genders* of *Nouns*, and the *Conjugations* of *Verbs*. To introduce this great mass of matter at an earlier period would cause such great interruptions, that your study of Etymology would be broken into parcels, separated by chasms much too wide. Yet this mass of matter must not be passed over : it must be encountered and mastered before you proceed to the *Syntax*. This matter will be the subject of Letter XIV. ; and, then, from Letter XV. to Letter XXVIII., both inclusive, I shall give you the *Syntax* ; or, as I described it before,

that part of Grammar, which teaches us how to put words into sentences. Here also I shall take the parts of speech one by one, from the Article to the Conjunction; and, at the end of my observations and rules relative to each, I shall give you an EXERCISE; that is to say, a list of sentences, each of which will contain some word, or words, bringing into practice the rules and instructions just given you. These Exercises will consist of English sentences to be put into French; for, as to putting French into English, you will do that pretty well by the time that you get to Letter XIII. To put the English into French will be no easy matter; but, then, I shall lead you along so gradually, the sentences will be so short and so simple at first, and from the first exercise to the twentieth (for there will be twenty), I shall make the previous one so effectually smooth the way to its successor, that, I hope, you will find no difficulties that steady application will not quickly overcome. In the framing of these Exercises I have not (as most other grammarians have done) put *part of the French under the English*. In my Grammar (called MAÎTRE D' ANGLAIS) I did this in compliance with fashion. But, experience has taught me, that the best way is, to give the English only, to let the scholar put the whole of the French as well as he can, and then, that he may be able to see whether he have made good French or not, to give him a complete translation of each Exercise at the end of the Grammar. This is the method that I shall pursue. I shall avoid NOTES, and every other thing calculated to draw off, or to enfeeble, your attention. I shall not tease you with EXCEPTIONS beyond what *utility* demands. I shall not call you off from a rule to read a *note* of half a page on exceptions relating to words which you might, perhaps, never see in use four times in your life. I shall leave these things to those persons who are fond of curiosities; and shall be content to assist you in the acquiring of that which is *useful*. I shall, in the giving of my in-



structions, make use of the *plainest* language; I shall endeavour to express myself in the clearest manner; and shall avoid every thing which shall appear to me likely to bewilder you, or to make you weary. In short, I shall talk to you in the most familiar manner; I shall give you *reasons* for doing that which I tell you ought to be done; I shall write you Letters that I hope you would not think very dull, though they were formed into a book merely to read through.

17. But, there is the *speaking of French*. It is something, and a great deal, too, to be able to *read* French; it is more to be able to *translate it* into English; it is still more to be able to *translate English into French*: but, there is still the *speaking of French*, which is, as to this matter, the great, general, practical, and desired talent. Mind, however, that, in the acquiring of this talent, this great accomplishment, you are got full *nine tenths* of the way, when you have learned to translate (upon paper) English into French. I mean, of course, to translate *well* and with facility. When you have carried your acquisition thus far, there remains nothing but the *sound*, and it is quite surprising how quickly the *ear* and the *tongue* do their part of the business. When, however, we reflect, the reasons are plain enough. It is *sound* that is to be acquired; and where we, take the day through, can possibly *write* one word, we hear and utter thousands. Still, to learn the sound you must *hear* it. To acquire a proper pronunciation of French (or of any foreign language) is absolutely impossible without practice; without hearing others speak, and without speaking to those who are able to correct you when you pronounce badly. *Sounds* admit not of being described *upon paper*. I shall, under the head of *PROSOBY*, in Letter III., prove to you that it is impossible for any human being to give written rules that can be of any use in teaching you how to pronounce French words. But, though, in order to learn to *speak French*, you must have the assistance of a

*teacher*, or must live among, or be a good deal among, those who speak that language, still, as I said before, the task is *nine tenths* performed, when you have acquired all that the Grammar will teach you. But, it is not necessary for you to go through the Grammar before you *begin to learn to pronounce*; that is to say, if you have a *teacher*, or any one to instruct you in *reading*. You may, after you have got well into the grammar, be learning to pronounce words at the same time that you are learning the principles of the language. How you are to proceed in doing this, what you are to read, and other particulars relative to this matter, you will find mentioned in Letter III.

18. The general error of those who attempt to learn French, is, that the moment they have begun to study, they want to get to *reading* French books, to translating, and to speaking. And this is very natural, because it seems like having actually got possession of part of the thing so anxiously sought after. But, this is going too fast: it is haste but not speed. The best way is to go patiently through the grammar as far as the end of Letter XIII. before you attempt to *read* or to *pronounce*, even if you have a teacher. Your manner of proceeding ought to be this: read Letter III ten times over, and then write it twice over. Go on thus to the end of Letter XIII. By the time that you have advanced thus far, which will be in about a month from the time that you begin, you will find that you have learned a great deal. You will begin to see your way through that, which, at the outset, appeared to be utterly impenetrable. You will, therefore, have courage to proceed with the remaining Letters in the same way, reading ten times and writing down twice. But, here, you will have *Exercises*. These, being merely English sentences for you to translate, need not be read, till you come to translate them. When you have read ten times and copied twice the Letter, for instance, on the Syntax of Articles, you will translate the Exercise in that Letter. Thus you

will proceed to the end. Particular instructions relative to the manner of going on in translating you will find in Letter XVII., just before you begin this part of your labours.

19. After you have gone through the whole of the rules and instructions, and have translated the whole of the Exercises, and have done this well, you will, of course, know how to *write French* tolerably well. Very easy will it be to learn to speak after this. But if you, too impatient to go thoroughly into the subjects of your grammar, hasten on to reading and to speaking without knowing any thing of the principles of the language, you will, in all probability, never speak French much better than an English footman, or lady's maid, who has been for a while in France. The first and the main thing is the Grammar: that, well learned, the rest is easy; but, that imperfectly learned, the remainder of your way is full of difficulty, and you never arrive at any thing approaching towards perfection. There are persons enough able to utter, or to put upon paper, sentences of broken French; to ask people how they do, to talk of the weather, to call for victuals and drink; but, this is not being a *French scholar*; and, I hope that nothing short of meriting this appellation will satisfy you. I shall slur nothing over. I know what were the difficulties the most troublesome to me. I remember the parts of the Grammar which were to me the most abstruse, and which it cost me the most time to be able to understand. These parts, therefore, I shall take particular pains to make plain and easy to you. In short, on my part, no effort shall be wanting; and, let me hope, that none will be wanting on yours.

## LETTER III.

OF LANGUAGE AND OF GRAMMAR GENERALLY, AND OF  
THE DIFFERENT BRANCHES, OR DIVISIONS OF GRAMMAR.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

20. IN pursuance of what I have said in paragraph 15, I am now about to explain to you what Language and Grammar are, in a general sense.

21. *Language* is a French word as well as an English one. We take it, like a great many other of our words, from the French. *Langue*, in French, means *tongue*; and, *Language* means, if fully stated, the things belonging to the tongue, or the things about which the tongue is employed, which things are words.

22. *Grammar* is a science, which teaches us how to make use of words in a proper manner; for, without some principle, or rule, in the using of words, we should have no standard whereby to ascertain their meaning. The main principles of Grammar apply to all languages alike; and this you will, in the next Letter, see fully illustrated in my account of the different *Parts of Speech*, or *Sorts of Words*.

23. But, before I enter on this matter, I must speak of the different *Branches*, or *Divisions*, of Grammar; for, we must approach our subject by degrees, and in a regular manner, and clearly understand what we are talking about, or we go on in vain. Grammar is usually divided into four Branches, which are thus named: *Orthography*, *Prosody*, *Etymology*, and *Syntax*.

24. ORTHOGRAPHY means *spelling*, or *word-making*; and the rules relating to it merely teach us what letters different words are to be composed of. It divides the letters into *Vowels* and *Consonants*. This is so very simple a matter, that it will be only necessary to add, under this head, a few remarks as to the difference between the English *Alphabet* (or set of letters) and that of the

French. The French Alphabet has no K and no W. It has all the other of our letters ; and it has none that our alphabet has not. But, though there be no K and no W used in the French language, the French use these letters, when they have to write the *proper names* of persons or places, which contain these letters ; as *Kingston*, or *Winchester* ; because, if they were to put any other letter, or letters, in lieu of the K and W, they, in fact, would not be understood as speaking of the same places. Nevertheless, they do take this liberty in certain cases ; for, they call Warsaw *Varsovie*. They have, then, *twenty-four* letters in their Alphabet. They are written and printed in the same form that ours are.

A. a.	G. g.	N. n.	T. t.
B. b.	H. h.	O. o.	U. u.
C. c.	I. i.	P. p.	V. v.
D. d.	J. j.	Q. q.	X. x.
E. e.	L. l.	R. r.	Y. y.
F. f.	M. m.	S. s.	Z. z.

Of these the *a, e, i, o*, and *u*, are Vowels, and also the *y*, which the French call the *y Grec*, that is to say, *Greek*. The other letters are, as with us, *consonants*. The letters are written and printed like ours, except in the case of the *c*, which has sometimes what they call a cedille to it, thus, *ç* ; and then it is sounded like an English *s*. As to the spelling of *words properly*, or, putting the *right letters* into them, there can be no rule given. It is a thing to be acquired by practice only. In case of words, which are derived from other words, the right spelling of the former will arise from a knowledge of the latter : thus, in our language, *hairy* naturally enough comes from *hair* ; but, what *reason* can be given, why *hair* should not be spelled *hare*, instead of *hair* ? The best, the shortest, and, indeed, the only way of learning to spell all the words of a language correctly, is, to write them many times over. *Nothing fixes words in the mind like putting them*

pon paper. The eye is a much better remembrancer than the ear, and the hand is a still better than the eye. For this reason it is that I always recommend great deal of writing.—But, before I quit this head, must notice the *stops* (or *points*), the *marks* and the *accents*; for, these really make part of a language as much as *letters* do. Some of those which am going to give an account of here are used in both the languages; but there are some of them, which you will find, are used in French and not in English.

**POINTS.** These are four in number: the comma (,) *la virgule*; the semicolon (;), *le point et la virgule*; the colon (:), *deux points*; the full point (.), *le point*.

**MARKS.** The mark of *interrogation* (?); that of *admiration* (!); that of *parenthesis* ( ); that of *quotation* ("). All the other marks, such as, \* † ‡ § || ¶, are merely used for the purpose of directing the eye of the reader to some *note*, or other matter to be referred to by direction of the writer.

The foregoing are common to both languages. Those which follow are not used in English, except the *hyphen* and the *elision*; and these are not used by us for purposes at all resembling those for which they are, in numerous cases, used by the French.

**ACCENTS AND MARKS peculiar to the French.** The *hyphen* (-), as in *vient-il?* (Is he coming?) The *elision* ('), as in *l'*, in *c'est lui*, and in thousands of instances. The *cedilla*, or *cédille*, I have mentioned before. It is the tail to the *c*, thus, (*ç*). The *dialysis* (..) called *Tréma*, in French; it serves to part two vowels, which, joined together, would form a *Diphthong*. Then there are the acute accent (*é*), the grave (*è*) and the circumflex accents (*ê*). These last are things of great importance; for *des* and *dès* are different words; so are *a* and *à*, *la* and *là*, *ou* and *où*, *du* and *dû*. These accents, therefore, must be attended to very carefully.

**MUTE LETTERS.** The *e* is called *mute* in some cases, and so is the *h*; that is to say, when they are *not sounded* in speaking the words of which they make a part.

**CAPITAL LETTERS.** These are used at the *beginning of every sentence*, set off by a *full point*; and, at the beginning of all *proper names*. In some other cases also, according to the taste of the writer. There is no law of grammar regulating this matter. Custom does a good deal, and that prescribes the use of capitals in writing the names of the days of the week and the names of the months, and in many other cases.

**25. PROSODY** means neither more nor less than what is expressed by the more common and better understood word, **PRONUNCIATION**; that is to say, the using of the proper *sound*, and the employing of the due *length of time* in the uttering of syllables and words. To lay down principles, or rules, in writing, relative to pronunciation, seems to be a thing absurd upon the very face of it; because no one letter, no combination of letters, has any *fixed* sound or measure; but varies, in both respects, with a great variety of circumstances. The *sounds* which some grammarians attempt to describe as being those of the several letters of the French alphabet, are, in fact, by no means perfect, and are only the sounds in *certain cases*. In other cases they are different. Indeed, it is impossible to *write rules* that can be of any real use, relative to the sounds of letters. No man can describe, by writing, the different sounds of our *th*; and when you are told that the word *François* is to be pronounced *Frawnsey*, or nearly so, of what *use* is it to write you down the sounds of the *o*, the *i*, and the *s*? When you are told, that the word *parleroient* is to be pronounced *parlerey*, or as nearly as possible to that, what *use* can there be in giving you the sounds of the *o*, the *i*, the *e*, the *n*, and the *t*? Again, *perdreux* is pronounced *peardro*. It is, therefore, worse than a waste of time to attempt

to give *written rules* relative to the pronunciation of individual letters; because such an attempt, while it cannot assist the learner, may, and indeed must, tend to mislead him. Nor has the *same combination* of letters the *same sound* in all cases. The variances, in this respect, are numerous. There are nearly a thousand words in the French language, which are very nearly the *same in sound*, but *different in their letters*. There are many words, each of which may mean different things; and some of them have *one sound* in one sense, and *another sound* in another sense. In short, to *speak* French in a manner at all resembling that of French people, or, indeed, in a manner to be understood by them, you must learn from the mouth of some one or more, who can speak the language. In default of other assistance, *there must be a teacher for this purpose*. To understand what you read in French, and, of course, to translate from French into English; to write French words, and to put them properly into sentences, and, of course, to translate from English into French: these you may be able to do without a *teacher*, though not nearly so speedily as with one. But to *speak*, free from ludicrous impropriety, without the assistance of the speaking of others, is absolutely impossible. You ought never, until you have been taught to pronounce, or except there be a teacher at your elbow, to attempt to pronounce a French word; for, having pronounced it viciously four or five times, it is hard to get rid of the bad habit. To speak French any thing like well, you must be taught to open the mouth much wider than we, English, generally, or, indeed, ever do. The French say of us, that we *bite* our words; that is to say, that we speak with our upper and lower teeth nearly close to each other. If we do not break ourselves of this, we never speak French even tolerably well. The harshness of our language leads us, in speaking, to *slide* over great numbers of our words, giving to each only a part, and, sometimes, a very small part, of its full pro-



nunciation. This habit we naturally fall into in reading and in speaking French, unless we be, at the outset, kept constantly on our guard against it; and this *sliding over* is what the French language will by no means bear. The result of these remarks is, that, though, as far as the understanding of what we read in French, and as far as the writing of French, go, much may be done without any other assistance than that of books; but, that as to speaking with any degree of propriety, it never can be acquired without the aid of the speaking of others. When, however, we come to speak; then we find all the advantages of what we have learned from the grammar; for then we know *what words* to use and *how to place* them; which, without the study of Grammar, we can never know. This constitutes the difference between the scholar and his footman, both being of the same age and both having the same opportunities of hearing French spoken. But, if the scholar have begun by pronouncing erroneously; if he have gone on, for even a little while, giving his English sounds to French words, it is ten to one that the footman, though he know not his letters, will, all his life time, *pronounce* better than the scholar; because he will never have been *misled*. The *age* at which we begin to pronounce, is not of so much importance as is *beginning properly*, whenever we do begin. Some imagine that we can never speak French well, unless we begin when *very young*. This is not the fact; I was *twenty-six* years old when I began to speak French; and, *in less than six months*, French people used to take me for a Frenchman. To be sure, they are apt to stretch a point or two on the side of civility; but, I really did speak the language tolerably well at the end of less than six months; and I ascribe this to my not having attempted to *pronounce* until I had competent assistance. In paragraph 17, I told you that I should, in this place, give you some instructions how to proceed in learning to *read* French. There will be no necessity

for my giving you any matter merely to read, and to learn to pronounce from ; for, what can be so good for this purpose as the lists of *Articles* and of the words of other parts of speech, which words will necessarily be inserted in lists, or tables, of this Grammar ? Your first lesson in reading would be the *Articles* in Letter V. Your next, the *Pronouns* in Letter VII. The several classes of *Pronouns* would give you so many *lessons in reading* ; and, observe, these words are short, and they occur in almost every sentence. You would next read, many times over, the verbs *avoir* and *être*. You would then read the other verbs. Then the lists of *Prepositions*, and *Conjunctions*, in Letters XI. and XII. Then come back to the *Nouns* and *Adjectives*, in Letters VI. and VIII. And after this, there will be, at the end of the Grammar, all the twenty *Exercises* translated into French ; and I shall take care that these *Exercises* contain one, at least, of each class of words of difficult pronunciation.

26. **ETYMOLOGY** means the *pedigree* or *relationship* of words. The word *write*, for instance, expresses an action which we perform with our hands ; but, in some cases, we have to say *wrote*, in others *written*, in others *writing*. Yet it is always the *same action* that is expressed ; and therefore the words, though different as to the letters of which they are composed, spring from the same root and have a relationship to each other. Etymology teaches the principles and rules according to which the spelling of the words is to be *varied* or *altered* ; it teaches us when we ought to use *write*, when *written*, and so on. You will bear in mind, that the general principles of grammar are the same in both languages ; but, as to this business of varying the spelling of the words, proceeding from the same root, it is, as you will by-and-by find, much more extensive in French than in English. This word *write*, for instance, is, in one case, *écrire*, but, in others, it becomes *écris*, *écrit*, *écrivons*, *écrivez*,

*écrivent, écrivois, écrivait, écrivions, écrivîmes, écrivirent* ; and takes many other forms. The rules of Etymology teach us when we ought to make use of one of these forms, and when of the other. You must, therefore, see, at once, that this Branch of the science is of great importance ; and you must also see, that it is impossible to acquire any knowledge of the French language, much beyond that which the capacity of a parrot would reach, without that sort of study upon which you are now entering. Etymology you will, in the next Letter, find dividing itself into several distinct parts. I have here aimed at giving you merely a general description of its nature and use.

27. SYNTAX means *sentence-making*. Etymology teaches us how to vary the forms of our words, how to make them agree or correspond with each other ; it teaches us, for instance, to say *he writes* and *I write*, and to avoid saying *he write* and *I writes*. But there remains something more than this to enable us to write, or speak, properly ; because, not only must we use the *proper words*, but we must give to each word its proper *situation*, its proper place in a *sentence*, or collection of words. Suppose, for instance, I were to say, "there is a principle in this science, from which we must never depart." There would be a doubt, whether it were the *principle*, or the *science*, that must be adhered to ; but place the words thus : "there is, in this science, a principle, from which we must never depart," and you know that it is the principle to which we have to adhere. Therefore, even in the use of our own language, the rules of *Syntax* are of great use ; but, in the learning of French, they are of indispensable necessity ; for, without a tolerably large stock of knowledge with regard to them, we never can arrive at any thing approaching to perfection in the language. The words, though the same in meaning, do not follow the same order, in the two languages. For instance : *He has ten white hens*. The French of this is, *Il a dix poules blanches*.

That is to say, word for word, *he has ten hens white*. And, bad as this sounds, in English, it does not sound worse, than *dix blanches poules* would in French. I give you this merely as a specimen, and to explain to you the nature of what is called *Syntax*, for the want of duly studying the principles and rules of which, the French hear so many English speaking broken French, and we hear so many French speaking broken English.

28. I have now spoken to you of Language and of Grammar in general, and described to you the different Branches, or Divisions, of the latter. You will bear in mind, that we have nothing further to do with ORTHOGRAPHY, except that we must always remember what has been said towards the close of Paragraph 24. You will also bear in mind, that you are not to attempt to meddle with PROSODY, or *Pronunciation*, unless at the stage, and under the circumstances, already fully mentioned. We have now to enter on the study of *Etymology*, which is, indeed, the most important part of our undertaking. Let me beg of you to proceed *steadily* on; not to be in haste; not to be impatient: and, if you follow this advice, you will soon have reason to be proud of what you have learned.

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## LETTER IV.

### ETYMOLOGY.

THE DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH, OR SORTS OF WORDS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

29. ETYMOLOGY has been described to you in the foregoing Letter. It treats, as you have seen, of the *relationship* of words, of which you have seen an example in paragraph 26. Treating, then, of the relationship of words, it first divides the words into *several distinct sorts*, as we would plants

for a garden, before we began to place them in rows or clumps. You will, by-and-by, see the use of this; but, in the present Letter, I have to describe to you these several different sorts of words, which grammarians call *Parts of Speech*, and which they name thus:

ENGLISH.	FRENCH.
Articles,	Articles,
Nouns,	Noms,
Pronouns,	Pronoms,
Adjectives,	Adjectifs,
Verbs,	Verbes,
Adverbs,	Adverbes,
Prepositions,	Prépositions,
Conjunctions,	Conjonctions,
Interjections.	Interjections.

30. These names are so much alike in both languages, that you will be apt to suppose, that the languages themselves differ, throughout, very little from each other: but, these are words taken from the more ancient into both these modern languages, whence comes the close resemblance in this particular case. You will observe, that, to whatever Part of Speech any English word belong, the French word which has the same meaning belongs also; it is the *same sort* of word in both languages, just as a tulip is the same sort of flower, whether it grow in a French or in an English garden. Thus, the word *tree* is, in French, *arbre*. The word *tree* is a *noun*, and the word *arbre* also.

31. I shall, by-and-by, have to tell you things of this sort; namely, that, in French, you must, in certain cases, place the *pronoun* before the *verb*, and not after it, as in English. For instance: *John gives you a pen*. You must write *Jean vous donne une plume*: that is: *John you gives a pen*: and not, *Jean donne vous une plume*. In short, I shall be continually talking to you about *Articles*, *Nouns*, and the rest of these Parts of Speech. My instructions will, indeed, consist of rules relative to *how you ought to write and how you ought to place Articles, Nouns, Pronouns*, and the rest of the sorts of

words. It is, therefore, as you will clearly see, necessary that you know, as soon as possible, how to distinguish one sort of words from another. To enable you to do this, or, rather, to open the matter to you, the remaining paragraphs of the present letter are intended.

32. ARTICLES. In English there are but *two*, namely, *the* and *a*. Before a vowel, or an *h* mute, *a* becomes *an*; but, it is only another shape for the same word. There being, then, only *the* and *a*, no further explanation is necessary in order to distinguish *our Articles* from the other Parts of Speech. With the French, however, the matter is not so easy; for, though they have only two Articles, *le* and *un*, these, and particularly the former, frequently change their form; the former unites itself so very oddly with prepositions; and both consist of the same letters of which words of other Parts of Speech consist; so that it is a matter of great importance to distinguish them from those other Parts of Speech. Articles are little words put before other words: as *the* stick, *a* horse; in French, *le* bâton, *un* cheval.

33. NOUNS. The word *noun* means *name*, and nothing more. Every word that stands for, or that speaks to us of, any thing (alive or dead), that has a *substance*, such as we can see, is a noun: as *man*, *tree*, *fire*. Whence some grammarians call this sort of words *substantives*. But, there are other nouns: as *pride*, *truth*, *conscience*, *thought*, *misery*, *distress*, *pleasure*, *joy*, and the like, which have *no substance*, and, therefore, *substantive* is an inadequate appellation. Every word that expresses any thing that has an *existence*, or *being*, is a noun; and more complete than this it is impossible to make our definition.

34. PRONOUNS. This word is composed of two Latin words, which mean *for* and *names*. So that Pronouns *stand for* nouns. Thus *he* is a Pronoun, because we say, *John was ill*, but, *he is now well*. So also *which* is a Pronoun, because we

say, *the horses which you bought are good*. There are many Pronouns, and many important rules relating to them; but, I am, in this place, endeavouring merely to give you some idea of what this Part of Speech is.

35. ADJECTIVES. The word Adjective, in its literal sense, means *something added*. In grammar it means a word added to a noun in order to express something belonging to it, which it is necessary for us to know. For instance: *send me a BLUE coat*. If I had no adjective whereby to express the colour, I should be able to say merely that I wanted a coat. In French, this phrase would be: *envoyez-moi un habit BLEU*. That is to say, send me a coat blue and not a blue coat; and, though it would be shockingly bad English to say *coat blue*, it would not be less bad French to say *bleu habit*. You will by-and-by, find rules about placing the adjectives, which are, in some cases, to come before, and, in others, after, the Nouns: and, therefore, it is necessary to know, as soon as possible, how to distinguish Adjectives from other words. Words of this sort express the *qualities* of Nouns, as *good, bad, indifferent*; their appearances, as *handsome, ugly*; their dimensions, as *long, short, shallow, deep, high, low*; their colours, and various other circumstances belonging to them. If you take time to compare them with nouns, you will soon discover the difference; for, you will find, that the adjectives speak of what has no *existence of itself*. For instance, *great*. This is *nothing* of itself; but, put it before the noun *man, joy, or the like*, and it has sense in it.

36. VERBS express all the different *actions and movements* of all creatures or things, whether alive or dead. To *walk, to speak, to grow, to moulder, to work*, and the like. In these cases there is *movement*, either visible or understood. To *love, to hate, to think, to remember*, though the *movement* is not so readily perceived, we, on reflection, discover movements of the heart and mind. But, to *sit, to sleep, to rot*, are also *verbs*; for, they describe *states*.

of *being*, states in which things *are* ; and therefore they are *verbs*. Verbs, are, then, words, the use of which is to express the actions, the movements, and the *state or manner of being* of all creatures, or things, whether animate or inanimate. In paragraph 31, I gave you an instance of the necessity of being able to distinguish one part of speech from another. I said that, I should have to instruct you to put, in certain cases, the *pronoun* before the *verb*, and not after it as in English. It was this : *Jean vous donne une plume*. That is, word for word, *John you gives a pen*. *Vous* is the pronoun and *donne* the verb. But, when I lay down a rule like this, it can be of no use to you, unless you know what words are pronouns and what words are verbs. You see, therefore, how necessary it is to know how to distinguish one part of speech from another, and each part from all the rest.

37. ADVERBS are so called because they are *added to verbs*; but this is not an adequate description of their use ; for they are as frequently otherwise employed. They are, indeed, added to verbs, as, *he writes neatly*. *Writes* is the verb, and *neatly* the adverb. But there are many adverbs which are not added to verbs; but that express, or point out, *time*, *place*, and *degree*. Their business is to express some circumstance in addition to all that is expressed by the Nouns, Adjectives and Verbs ; as, *He writes a very good hand*. We, without the Adverb *very*, know that he *writes*, and that he writes *a good hand* ; but the adverb is necessary to inform us, that this goodness is in a high degree.

38. PREPOSITIONS are so called because their *position* is generally *before*, or *previous* to, that of the Nouns to which they apply. They are the little words, *in*, *to*, *for*, *from*, *of*, *by*, *with*, and several others. The French words, which answer to these and the rest of our Prepositions, are, you will bear in mind, Prepositions in that language also. This is a class of words, few in number, and soon distinguished from all others.



39. **CONJUNCTIONS** have this name given them, because they *conjoin*, or *join together*, words or parts of sentences : as *Richard AND William write* ; *BUT they do not ride*. Thus, you see, the word *and* joins together Richard and William, and, by the means of this *junction*, makes the word *write* apply to them both. The word *BUT* connects the two parts of the sentence ; and thus does every part of the sentence apply to the two Nouns that are the subject of it.

40. **INTERJECTIONS**. This name arises from two Latin words, which mean, *something thrown between*. The Interjections are, *Oh ! Ah ! Alas ! Poh !* and some others, which are, indeed, not *words* ; they make no part of what we call *language* ; they are mere *sounds*, and ought not to be reckoned a *Part of Speech*, any more than *hissing*, *hooting*, *crying*, *coughing*, or *sneezing* ought to be reckoned such. The French say, for instance, *Bah !* where we say, *Poh !* It is all mere *noise*, wholly unworthy of our attention, and has been mentioned by me only for the purpose of expressing my disapprobation of the conduct of those who have considered it a *Part of Speech*.

41. Even the most attentive study of the contents of this Letter will not enable you to know, in all cases, what Part of Speech a word belongs to. To obtain this knowledge in perfection is a work of time, steady pursuit, and patience. Your understanding of what you have now read will, at first be *confused* ; and you will, at times, be ready to think, that you shall *never succeed* in your object. But, you must take heart, and remember what I said before, that *nothing valuable* can be honourably gained without *labour* of some sort or other. You should also bear in mind, that, in proportion to the greatness of the difficulty of your undertaking is the smallness of the number of those who overcome it. In war, the maxim is, the greater the danger the greater the glory : in learning it is according to the labour that the meed is apportioned.

42. Let me, before I put an end to this Letter, give you an instance of a sentence, in which you will find words belonging to all the Parts of Speech ; thus : *the brown horse and the grey mare which ran swiftly in the field.* The word *the* is an Article ; *horse, mare, and field* are Nouns ; *which* is a Pronoun ; *ran* is a Verb ; *swiftly* is an Adverb ; *in* is a Preposition ; *and* is a Conjunction. In order to *try yourself* a little, it is a very good way to take any sentence in a book, and to write down, on a piece of paper, against each word, the part of Speech which *you think* it belongs to : then look for the words one by one, in the Dictionary. You find an *a.* against Articles ; *s.* against Nouns, because they are also called Substantives ; *adj.* against Adjectives ; *pro.* against Pronouns ; *v. a.* against Verbs Active ; *v. n.* against Verbs Neuter ; *adv.* against Adverbs ; *prep.* against Prepositions ; and *con.* against Conjunctions. These marks are the same in the French as in the English Dictionary, except, that, in the case of Nouns, or substantives, you will, in the French, find besides the *s*, an *m* or an *f* ; that is to say, *masculine* or *feminine* ; because, as you will find by-and-by, every French Noun is either masculine or feminine, which makes one of the great differences between that language and ours.

43. One thing more relative to the *Parts of Speech*, you ought here to be informed of ; namely, that what one would call the *same word* often belongs to *two* Parts of Speech. For instance, *I record a deed.* Here *record* is a Verb ; but in, *I put the deed upon record*, the same word is a Noun. In truth, however, it is not the same *word* : it is the same assemblage of letters, but not the same word ; nor indeed, has it the same sound. In French *le* is sometimes an Article, and, at others, a Pronoun. It is thus with a great number of words in both languages. It is their *meaning*, and not merely the letters of which they are composed, that determines the Part of Speech to which they belong.

## LETTER V.

## ETYMOLOGY OF ARTICLES.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

44. Before you enter on this Letter, look again at paragraph 32. You there see, that in our language, we have only two articles, *a*, and *the*. The first, sometimes, as you saw, becomes *an*; but, it is still the same word, the difference in the spelling being merely for the purpose of harmony of sound. This is called the *indefinite* article, because a noun, when it has this article prefixed to it, only serves to point out the *kind* of person or thing spoken of, without defining *what* person or *what* thing; as, *A horse is dead*. But, when we say, *THE horse is dead*, we speak of some particular horse known to the person to whom we are speaking. The *the* is, therefore, called the definite article.

45. The use of *our own* articles is so well known to ourselves that it will be unnecessary to enlarge upon that here: my chief business in this place is, to teach you the manner of using the French articles, which are also *two* in number, *un* and *le*, answering to our *a* and *the*; but, as you are now going to see, these two French articles assume many forms, and some of these very different from the forms in which you here see them. The first of them is, as with us, called the *indefinite* article, and the other the *definite*; and they are used, of course, according to the principle stated in paragraph 44.

46. The indefinite article *un* is, then, put before nouns which merely point out the *kind* of the person or thing spoken of; as, *un livre*, a book. But, here we begin to see the difference in the two languages; for, every noun in French is either of the *masculine* or the *feminine* gender, and the article varies in its form, that is to say, in its spelling, to correspond with the gender of the noun to which it is prefixed. *Un* is the masculine, and *une* the

feminine, of this indefinite article; so that we must say *un livre*, a book; but we must say, *une plume*, a pen, because *livre* is masculine and *plume* feminine.

47. This is the only variation of form to which, as an article, this word is liable. But, the same word, or rather the same assemblage of letters, is not always an article. It is sometimes an adjective; that is to say, when it expresses *number*, answering to our *one*; for the French say, *un, deux, trois*, as we say *one, two, three*; and this is the reason why we hear French people say, *one man*, and the like, when they should say, *a man*. Not having learned English *grammatically*, they confound the article with the adjective. It is the same word, or, rather, the same assemblage of letters, in their language; but it is not the same in ours. Besides this, the *un* is sometimes a *pronoun* in like manner as our *one* is; as, *neither the one nor the other*. In French, *ni l'un ni l'autre*. But, here is a further variation to agree with the number as well as with the gender of the nouns. If, in the example just given, we are speaking of *livres*, books, which are masculine, we say, *ni l'un ni l'autre*; if of *plumes*, pens, which are feminine, we say, *ni l'une ni l'autre*; if of parcels of books, we say, *ni les uns ni les autres*; and, if of parcels of pens *ni les unes ni les autres*: while, you will observe, we have, in the use of our *one*, no variations of this sort, unless, indeed, that we do sometimes say, good *ones*, bad *ones*, and the like. I am, here, got out of my subject; for, I am not now to talk of adjectives and pronouns; but the French *un*, which answers to our article *a*, being sometimes an adjective and sometimes a pronoun, I was obliged to mention that circumstance here.

48. Though the paragraph, which you have just read, anticipates a little; though it does not, strictly speaking, belong to the etymology of *articles*, it may serve to prevent you from confounding this indefinite article with the adjective or the pronoun, composed of the same letters. The 46th paragraph

concludes the subject of the *indefinite* article; and, now we come to the *definite* article, which, as you have been told, is *le*, answering to our *the*.

43. Our definite article is, in all cases, the *same*. It never changes its form at all. Whatever may be the noun, before which it is placed, it is always composed of the same letters. It is always *the*. Whereas the French definite article takes, according to circumstances, all the following different forms: *le*, *la*, *l'*, *les*, *du*, *des*, *au*, *aux*. In the four last forms the word is a *compound*; it is an article *united* with the prepositions *de*, *of*, and *à*, *to*. Thus *du* means *de le*, *of the*, in the singular, *des* means *de les*, *of the*, in the plural; *au* means *à le*, *to the*, in the singular, and *aux* means *à les*, *to the*, in the plural. And here you perceive, that, what is expressed by a single word in one language requires *two words* in the other. This you will find to be frequently the case.

50. However, this is sufficient about the article at present; because, in order clearly to understand the rules relative to the use of it; in order to understand when one of these forms is to be used, and when the other, you must first learn something about the *branches*, *genders*, *numbers*, and *cases* of nouns; and this you will learn from the next Letter.

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## LETTER VI.

### ETYMOLOGY OF NOUNS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

51. IN paragraph 33, I have described *what a Noun is*; that is to say, what are the marks by which you are to distinguish Nouns from words belonging to other Parts of Speech. You must now read that paragraph again; for you are now entering on the *Etymology* of this Part of Speech; and

you have seen, in Paragraph 26 (which you will now read again), that Etymology teaches us the principles and rules, according to which we are to vary the form, or spelling, of words.

52. In a Noun there are to be considered, the *Branches*, the *Genders*, the *Numbers*, and the *Cases*; and these must all be carefully attended to.

53. THE BRANCHES. Nouns are divided into *Proper* and *Common*. The *Proper* are such as are the names of particular individuals; as *Richard*, *London*, *England*. The *Common* are the names of all the individuals of a kind; as, *Man*, *City*, *Country*. There are, indeed, many men named *Richard*, and there is a *London* and an *England* in America; but, these names are not applicable to *all* men, *all* cities, and *all* countries. Though many pointers go by the same name, such as *Don*, yet, this is not a common Noun, like *pointer*, or *dog*, the first of which is applicable to *all pointers*, and the last applicable to *all dogs*. Such are the two *Branches* of Nouns; and this, simple as it appears, is a matter for you to attend to; because you will find, by-and-by, that the manner of using the other words, which are employed with Nouns, will depend upon whether the Nouns themselves be *proper* or *common*; and this is the case to a much greater extent in French than it is in English. *Proper* Nouns are always, in all languages, made to begin, whether in manuscript or in print, with a capital letter; as in this sentence: RICHARD knows several of the MEN who live in most of our CITIES, but he knows only THOMAS in that of BRISTOL. We do, indeed, employ capital letters in *some other cases*, of which I shall say more in another place; but we always employ them at the beginning of *proper* nouns.

54. THE GENDERS. Here we come to that which forms one of the great differences in the two languages. In our language, the Nouns, or names, of *males* are *masculine*; those of *females* are *feminine*; and those of inanimate things, or of creatures,

the sex of which we do not know, are *neuter*. Thus, in speaking of a man, we say *he* ; of a woman *she* ; of a house, *it*. In speaking of living creatures, the sex of which we do not know, we use the neuter gender ; for, though we call a *cock* a *he* and a *hen* a *she*, we call a *fowl* an *it*. In speaking of a *child*, we say *it* ; but this is only when we do not know whether the child be a *male* or a *female*. We do, indeed, in a sort of figurative way, sometimes call irrational animals *hes* : for instance, when we are speaking of birds or beasts, as a *race*, and when we use the singular number instead of the plural ; as, *the lark* sings well ; *the horse* is an useful animal ; that is to say, *larks* sing well, *horses* are useful animals. Now, if we have, in this case, to use the pronoun, we very frequently say, *he* (the lark) sings well ; *he* (the horse) is an useful animal. Some few birds and beasts and insects, we, when we speak thus figuratively, call *shes*. But, neither being strictly grammatical, there can be no rule about the matter. We generally call the *owl* a *she*. This is all mere accident ; and *he* would be as proper ; because neither is proper, strictly speaking.

55. How different the French language as to this matter ! In French every Noun is of the masculine or of the feminine, whether it be the name of a living creature or not. The names of living creatures that are *males* are, indeed, of the masculine gender, and those that are the names of *females* are of the feminine gender ; but the names of all other things are either masculine or feminine. *Panier* (basket), for instance, is masculine ; and *table* (table) feminine. This would be nothing, if it were merely calling them masculine and feminine. But, the *articles*, the *adjectives*, and the *pronouns* must vary their form, or spelling, to agree with the genders of the nouns. We say *the basket*, *the table* ; but the French say, *le panier*, *la table*. We say the *round basket*, the *round table* ; but they must say *le panier rond*, and *la table ronde*. We say, speaking of a basket, *it is round*, and we say the same of

a table ; but they say, speaking of a basket, *il est rond*, and, speaking of a table, *elle est ronde*.

56. Thus, you see, it is absolutely necessary to know *what gender* a noun is of before you use it. If I am speaking of *wine*, I must call it *he* (il) ; but if I am speaking of *beer*, I must call it *she* (elle). Now, then, *how* are we, when we are about to use a noun, to know whether it be masculine or feminine ? How are we to come at this knowledge ? In the Dictionary, as I observed in paragraph 42, you will find, against every Noun, either *s. m.* or *s. f.* The former means Substantive (or Noun) *masculine*, and the latter Substantive (or Noun) *feminine*. And this, after all that Grammarians can do ; after all the rules that they can give, is the only sure way of learning (from books) the Gender of the French Nouns. MONSIEUR RESTAUT, in his "*General Principles of French Grammar*," makes the scholar put this question to the Master : "*How are we to know of what gender nouns are ?*" The answer of the Master is this : "The nouns before which we can put *le*, or *un*, are masculine, and the nouns before which we can put *la* or *une*, are feminine ; as, *le livre*, *un livre* ; *la plume*, *une plume*." This is very good for those who *already know* the cases which demand those different Articles respectively ; but Monsieur RESTAUT does not tell others how they are to know it, which was the very thing that was wanted. Monsieur RESTAUT's rule for knowing the gender of Nouns is excellent for those who know the gender of Nouns, and quite useless to every body else. But, Monsieur RESTAUT was writing a Grammar of the French Language for the use of *French people*, who had, from their infancy, heard the *le* put before some words, and the *la* before others. It is a very different matter when the learner is of another nation.

57. Are there any *rules*, then, by which we, English people, can know the gender of French nouns ? There are ; but, so numerous are those rules, and so numerous the exceptions, that it is impossible



for them to be of any use at all to the learner. The rules are ten or twelve in number ; and the exceptions are many hundreds. The way which these rules point out for you to know the gender of a noun, is, by looking at the *termination*, or ending of it. Thus, for instance, one rule says, that nouns ending in *ion* are of the *feminine* gender ; but, there are from twenty to thirty exceptions to this one rule ; and, while you must say *la nation*, you must say *le scorpion*. There are more than three score different terminations, if you go back to the fourth letter from the end of the word. So that there might be three score rules, and even these must have, in the whole, many scores of exceptions. To show the folly of all attempts to reduce this matter to rule, we have only to know, that there are more than a hundred nouns which are masculine in *one sense*, and feminine in *another sense*. And, after all this, there come the numerous nouns ending in an *e mute*, or not sounded. Of this description of nouns there are, perhaps many more than *a thousand*, and there are about as many of them of one gender as of the other. What, then, can Monsieur DE LEVIZAC mean by the following words, in his Grammar ? “The gender of nouns, in inanimate objects, is generally expressed by their terminations ; thus, final *e mute* is the distinctive mark of the *feminine gender*, and every other final letter is the sign of the *masculine*. This would be an excellent rule, were it universal, but this is far from being the case.” Far indeed ! For, in the first place, there are *as many* masculines as feminines with a final *e mute*. How, then, can the final *e mute* be the *distinctive mark* of the feminine gender ? Then, of the nouns which end in *eur*, *ion*, and in some other letters, the greater part are feminines. How, then, can every final letter other than *e mute* be the *sign* of the masculine gender ?

58. After this Monsieur DE LEVIZAC proceeds to lay down what he calls “*concise rules*” for ascertaining the gender. These “*concise rules*” occupy

*eight pages* of print, and present a mass of perplexity, to unravel which would demand more time than would be required to write down all the nouns in the Dictionary with an Article to each and to get the whole by heart; and after all these eight pages of "concise rules" Mons. DE LEVIZAC is compelled to leave all the nouns in final *e* mute to take their chance! Monsieur CHAMBAUD has *twenty-four rules*, each with exceptions, and some with numerous exceptions; and, after all, he, also, leaves the nouns in final *e* mute nearly to take their chance. Monsieur PALAIRET, after giving five rules with their exceptions, comes to his *sixth* rule, which is, that nouns in final *e* mute are feminine, "except the following;" and then comes a list of about *five hundred nouns*, and even to these are to be added many which he says he has omitted "for *shortness*." Monsieur PORNY, after giving *nine rules* with their exceptions, says that the "*surest* way is to refer to the Dictionary;" and yet he has, in a Note, this strange observation: "This advice is not given on a pretence of the *impossibility* of reducing the gender of our Nouns to rules, as a certain Grammarian asserts; but on account that there can be no rules drawn, on this intricate subject; but what must be accompanied with many exceptions, and the whole, of course, would, perhaps, prove more perplexing, to beginners, than instructive." Passing over the *bad English* of Monsieur PORNY, I agree with him that the attempt to reduce the gender of the French Nouns to rules would be more *perplexing* than *instructive*; and I so well remember, that the perplexity which I experienced from reading rules on this subject gave me such disgust, and was so near driving me away from the study of the language, that I shall take good care not to expose you to the effects of reading such rules.

59. Monsieur PORNY calls this an *intricate* subject. It is by no means *intricate*, any more than would be the task of separating the grains of wheat from those of barley when mixed together in a sack.

It is a matter of mere *labour* with some *memory*, and requires no reflection, no reasoning, as in the case of distinguishing the *Parts of Speech* from each other. The subject is not, therefore, intricate; and though it requires labour, this is rendered wearisome and disgusting only by the vain attempts to subject it to rules.

60. You are not to encounter the whole of this labour *yet*; but, I shall now give you some instructions how to proceed to know the *gender of nouns*, which, as you have already been informed, is a thing of indispensable necessity to the learning of French.

61. In the first place, all nouns that are masculine in English are masculine in French, and it is the same with the feminines; that is to say, the names of all *males* are of the first, and the names of all *females* of the last. But if, as is observed in paragraph 54, the Noun relate to a living creature and do not express the sex, then the Noun, in French, is masculine or feminine, as it may happen. Thus, *corbeau* (raven) is masculine, and *perdrix* (partridge) is feminine; for, these do not express the *sex*, but merely the *kind*. When the French Noun expresses the sex, as *coq* (cock), or *poule* (hen), it is masculine or feminine, as in our language. So far the French language follows the order of nature; but, it has no *neuter* gender. It makes every thing either a male or a female, as was explained in paragraph 55.

62. To the rule, just given, and according to which the names of all males are of the masculine gender and those of all females of the feminine gender, there are a few seeming exceptions that I must notice, such as *sentinelle*, a sentinel, *Patrouille*, the patrol, *Garde*, a guard of soldiers, *Majesté*, majesty, *Saint Michel*, the feast of St. Michael. But, in fact, it is *not the men*, but their *office* or *occupation*, and the *feast* of the Saint, that these French words, which are *feminine*, express.

63. I have one more remark to make before I come to my instructions how to proceed to know

the genders of other nouns. Some words are of *both genders*; that is to say, they are sometimes of one and sometimes of the other. They, like some words in English, sometimes mean one thing and sometimes another. We, for instance, have *jack*, the name of a *fish*, and *jack* to roast with. The French have *livre*, a *book*, and *livre*, a *pound*: and, with them, the first of these is masculine, and the other feminine; and, accordingly, we must say, *le livre*, in the first case, and *la livre* in the last. They have many of these words of double meaning, but, the genders of these as well as of all the rest will soon be learned by the method that I am now going to point out, by telling you what I myself did in order to learn the genders.

64. I made a paper-book, in the octavo form, and divided each page into three columns, by lines drawn down the page. Then I took the Dictionary, and wrote down all the Nouns in it. When I had filled the first column, I began the next, and proceeded thus, till I had written down all the Nouns in the Dictionary. The Dictionary told me what gender each noun was of, and I prefixed to it an *Article*, either indefinite or definite, corresponding with that gender. It took me about *ten days* to do this; and I had wasted weeks on the *rules* about genders without being able to make top or tail of the matter. When I had once *written* every Noun with its *Article*, I had done a good deal. I then looked at this book of my own making forty or fifty times over; so that, in a few days, my *eye*, when I was translating from English into French, told me almost instantly, whether I was right or wrong as to the gender. If I had had a master to *read* to, and had read my book to him, the *ear*, as well as the eye, would have assisted me; but, even without such aid, I found, in a short time, very little difficulty with regard to the gender, which presents, beyond all comparison, the most laborious task that we have to perform in learning the French language.

65. But, as I observed just now, you are not yet to

enter on this part of your undertaking. This *practical* part will come by-and-by ; and then I shall have again to give you some instructions on the subject. I have here been explaining to you the nature of the *genders*, and showing you how the French language differs from ours in respect to them. I, therefore, now quit the *genders*, and go to the *Numbers*.

66. **NUMBERS.** We may have to speak of persons and things that are collected together ; that is to say, when there is more of them than one to be spoken of. The Noun must, then, have two *Numbers*, one to be used when we are speaking of a *single* person or thing, and the other, when we are speaking of *more than one*. The Noun has two *Numbers* accordingly ; the one called the *singular* and the other the *plural*. This latter word means *belonging to more*. The singular belongs to *one*, the plural to *more than one*.

67. The next thing to be considered is, how the plural Noun is designated so as to be distinguished from the singular. This is generally done, in English, by adding an *s* to the singular ; as *day*, *days*. And the very same is the general rule in French ; as *chien*, *chiens*. But, in both languages, there are some exceptions to this general rule. The exceptions are not very numerous ; and may, with proper industry, be soon pretty well fixed in the mind. In English, when the singular Noun ends in *ch*, *sh*, *s*, or *x*, there requires *es* to be added to form the plural, as *church*, *churches*. A singular ending in *y* changes the *y* into *ies* to form the plural ; as *quality*, *qualities* ; but, if a vowel immediately precede the *y*, you only add an *s* ; as *day*, *days*. Singulars ending in *f* generally change the *f* into *ves* to make the plural. Some few Nouns have their plural in *n* ; as *oxen*. Some few Nouns have no *singular* number, and some have *no plural* ; as, *tongs* and *gold*. Nouns expressing moral qualities and feelings have generally no plural ; as *honesty*, *meekness*. *Some few Nouns* form their plural by changing

several of the letters of which the singular is composed ; as *mouse*, *mice* ; *goose*, *geese*. And a few are the same words in both numbers, as *deer* and *sheep*.

68. Such is the case with regard to our English Nouns ; and this is much about the case with the French Nouns. But, let me observe here, that the irregularity in one language is not found, except by mere chance, in the *same word* as in the other language. There are *Five Rules* for forming the plurals of French Nouns ; the first is the general rule ; the rest form exceptions to it.

RULE 1. The plural is formed by adding an *s* to the singular ; as *chien*, dog, *chiens*, dogs. This is the *general rule*.

RULE 2. Nouns ending in *s*, or *x*, are the same in both numbers ; as *un fils*, a son ; *deux fils*, two sons ; *une noix*, a nut ; *trois noix*, three nuts.

RULE 3. Nouns ending in *nt* drop the *t* and take the *s* ; as *un engagement*, one engagement ; *quatre engagements*, four engagements. But, observe, if the word have but *one syllable*, the *t* is retained ; as, *une dent*, one tooth, *cinq dents*, five teeth. Yet there are *cent*, hundred, and *tout*, the whole, which follow the rule.

RULE 4. Nouns ending in *au*, *eau*, *eu*, *oeu*, *ieu*, *ou*, form their plurals by taking an *x*, instead of an *s* ; as, *un chapeau*, a hat, *deux chapeaux*, two hats ; *un chou*, a cabbage, *deux choux*, two cabbages. But, there are these exceptions with regard to Nouns ending in *ou* ; namely,

cou,	neck.	fou,	fool.
trou,	hole.	matou,	a he cat.
clou,	nail.	hibou,	owl.
filou,	pickpocket.	loup garou,	a ferocious
licou,	halter.		man.

These follow the *general rule*, and make in their plurals, *cous*, *trous*, *clous*, and so on.

RULE 5. Nouns ending in *al* and *ail* change these letters into *aux* to form their plural ; as, *un mal*, an evil, *plusieurs maux*, many evils ; *un*

*travail*, a work ; *plusieurs travaux*, many works. But, there are these exceptions as to Nouns ending in *al* : *bal*, ball (or dance) ; *pal*, pale in heraldry ; *cal*, callous skin ; *carnaval*, carnival ; *regal*, regale ; all which follow the general rule, and take simply an *s* for the formation of the plural, as *un bal*, a ball ; *trois bals*, three balls ; and so on. The following nouns, ending in *ail*, follow the *general rule*, and form their plurals by adding an *s* to the singulars.

attirail,	splendid train.	gouvernail,	helm.
carnail,	a priest's dress.	mail,	mail.
détail,	detail.	portail,	portal.
évantail,	fan.	serail,	seraglio.
épouvantail,	scare-crow.		

Besides these rules, with their exceptions, it is to be observed that there are several nouns which have no *plural*, and several which have no *singular* ; as *bonheur*, happiness, and *hardes*, clothes. The names of different sorts of *grain*, of *herbs*, of *flesh*, and of *metals*, have seldom any plurals in either language ; and the things which nature, or art, have made double, or in inseparable numbers, can seldom take nouns in the singular form. Then, there are some nouns so *irregular* as not to admit of being reduced to any thing like rule ; as, *œil*, eye ; *yeux*, eyes.

69. It would be useless to give *lists* of these here, because such lists could only tend to *load the memory*. The above rules are quite sufficient for all purposes, connected with the formation of the plural of nouns. They are clear and short, and will, if written down by you several times, not fail to be a competent guide. You will observe that it is unnecessary to swell out a book of this kind with matters that are fully explained in the *Dictionary*. If, for instance, you want to know what *eye* is in French, the Dictionary says *œil* ; and, lest you should think, that the plural is formed by adding an *s* to the singular, the Dictionary tells you that the plural of *œil* is *yeux*. This is the true way of learning, with *respect to numbers and genders*, all that cannot be

reduced to short and certain rule. I must make a remark here relative to the manner of *writing* the above *tables*. The rules of grammar require, that there should be a CAPITAL LETTER to begin the word, which comes next after a full point. I have not observed this rule in the *tables* and *conjugations*, because it would have been, in some cases, inconvenient in point of *space*.

70. CASES. The word *case*, as used in teaching grammar, means *state*, *situation*, or *position*. A noun may be, at different times, in different *states*, or *situations*, with regard to other nouns in the same sentence. For instance, a noun may be the name of a man who *strikes* a horse, or of one who *possesses* a horse, or of one whom a horse *kicks*. These different situations or states, are called *cases*. You will presently see the necessity of this division of the situations of nouns into *cases*; for, you will find, that *articles* and some other words, used along with the nouns, *vary their form* to agree with the different cases of the nouns. Therefore, this is a matter of great importance, and requires great care and attention.

71. In the Latin language each noun has several *different endings* in order to denote the different cases in which it may be. In our language there is but *one of the cases* of nouns which is expressed, or denoted, by a change in the ending of the noun. In the French, there is no *such change* to denote the case; and this you will see explained presently.

72. There are three cases: the *Nominative*, the *Possessive*, and the *Objective*. The word *nominative* means *naming*; the word *possessive* means *relating to possession*; the word *objective* means *relating to objects*.

73. A noun is in the *Nominative* case, when it names, or points out, a person or thing, which *does something* or *is something*; as, Richard *strikes*, Richard *is* good. And, observe, it is the same in French; as, Richard *frappe*, Richard *est bon*.

74. A noun is in the *Possessive* case, when it de-



notes a person or thing which *possesses* some other person or thing, or when there is one of the persons or things *belonging* to the other; as *Richard's hat*, the *mountain's top*, the *nation's fleet*. And, here you see that *change in the ending* of our English nouns, spoken of in paragraph 71. But, observe, this change is not absolutely necessary. We may always do without it if we please; for, *the hat of Richard* is the same thing as *Richard's hat*. In French there is no such change: there we say, *le chapeau de Richard*, *le haut de la montagne*, *la flotte de la nation*.

75. A noun is in the *Objective* case, when the person or thing that it expresses, or denotes, is the *object*, or *end*, of some act or of some movement; as, *Richard strikes Peter*; *Richard gives a blow to Peter*; *Richard goes after Peter*; *falsehood leads to mischief*; *idleness is the nurse of vice*. Here you see, that all these nouns in the objective case, that is to say *Peter*, *mischief* and *vice*, are the *object*, the *end*, or the *effect*, of something done or felt by some other person, or thing, which is in the nominative case.

76. It would be useless to talk about these cases, seeing that the *form* or *spelling* of the noun is the same in all the cases; but, when we come to the *pronouns* and *verbs*, you will soon find the necessity of attending very carefully to the cases of the nouns; that is to say, when we come to use the nouns along with the pronouns and the verbs; and this is, as you will find, more strikingly true in French than in English. But, before we come to them we have to speak of the use of the *definite article*, the treating of which was, in paragraph 50, put off until we should come to the place where we now are.

77. Read Letter V. all through again, carefully, and then proceed with me. You see our definite Article, *the*, never changes its form, but that the French Article, *le*, changes its form many times; and, as we have now spoken of the *branches*, *genders*, *numbers* and *cases* of Nouns, you will the better understand me as I describe the mode of varying

the form of the Article; for in French, the Article varies its form to agree with these various circumstances in the noun. Sometimes the French article is used before *proper* names, and sometimes not. We say *France* is a great kingdom; *fire* burns. But, they say *La France* est un grand royaume; *le feu* brûle. We say, speaking of mankind, *Man*; they say, *l'Homme*. This, however, will be fully explained by-and-by, and especially when we come to the *Syntax*, where we shall see how the article is to be used in *sentences*: at present I have only to show you how it varies its form to agree with the nouns before which it is placed.

78. The article must agree with the noun in gender. You have been told, in paragraph 55, that *panier* (basket) is masculine, and that *table* (table) is feminine. Now, then, of these two nouns the first takes the masculine article *le*, and the second the feminine article *la*. But this, you will observe, is only in the *singular number*; for, if the number be *plural*, the article is *les*, whether the noun be masculine or feminine. This is not, however, always the case; for if the noun *begin with a vowel*, or with an *h* mute (not sounded), the *e*, or the *a*, is omitted in the article, a mark of *Elision* is put over the place of the *e*, or the *a*, and the *l'* is put before singular nouns of both genders; as *l'oreiller*, the pillow, which is masculine; and *l'âme*, the soul, which is feminine. These four nouns take the Article as follows:

le panier,	the basket.	les paniers,	the baskets.
la table,	the table.	les tables,	the tables.
l'oreiller,	the pillow.	les oreillers,	the pillows.
l'âme,	the soul.	les âmes,	the souls.

The *h* mute is, in this respect, like the *vowels*. *L'heure* (hour), which is feminine, and *l'honneur* (honour), which is masculine, both take the Article in the same form; but, if the *h* be not mute, that is to say, if it be sounded in speaking, you must put the *le* or the *la* agreeably to the gender; as *le hibou* (the owl) and *la hache* (the axe). But observe,

that, in all instances, the article for the *plural* is *les*.

79. We are now going to see how this definite French article *unites* itself with the little words *de* (of) and *à* (to). In paragraph 49 I have called it, when thus used, a *compound*. *De* and *à* are *prepositions*, as you have seen in paragraph 38, which you will now look at again. *De* sometimes means *from*, and *à* sometimes has a meaning different from that of *to*; but, used before nouns, they generally answer to our *of* and *to*. In speaking *of* a basket, instead of saying *de le panier*, we must say, *du panier*; thus, this one word *du* answers to our two words, *of the*. But, if we are using a noun of the feminine gender, we must not say *du*, but *de la*. Then, again, if the noun begin with a vowel, or an *h* mute, it must, whether it be of the masculine or of the feminine gender, have the *de l'*; and in every instance, the plural noun takes *des* for *of the*. Let us here take the same four nouns that we took in the last paragraphs.

du panier,	of the basket.	des paniers,	of the baskets.
de la table,	of the table.	des tables,	of the tables.
de l'oreiller,	of the pillow.	des oreillers,	of the pillows.
de l'âme,	of the soul.	des âmes,	of the souls.

What was said in the last paragraph, about the *h* mute, applies here also; and we, therefore, say, *de l'heure*, *de l'honneur*, *du hibou*, and *de la hache*.

80. In like manner the French Article *unites* itself with the preposition *à* (to). In speaking of a basket instead of saying *à le panier*, we must say *au panier*; that is to say, *to the basket*. But, if our noun be of the feminine gender, we must use the *two* words; we must not say *au*, but *à la*. Then, as in the case of *du* comes the same rule about the *h* mute; and, in the *plural* number, be the gender as it may, *aux* is the word that answers to our *to the*. Therefore, the four nouns which we have already had twice before us, will again come before us, thus:

au panier,	to the basket.	aux paniers,	to the baskets.
à la table,	to the table.	aux tables,	to the tables.
à l'oreiller,	to the pillow.	aux oreillers,	to the pillows.
à l'âme,	to the soul.	aux âmes,	to the souls.

Bear in mind what was said, at the close of the last paragraph, about the *h* mute and the *h* sounded; and then you will perceive, that we must say, *à l'heure, à l'honneur, au hibou, à la hache*.

81. Now, if you pay strict attention to the three last paragraphs; if you read them over in the manner that I have directed, and write them down on paper, you will soon see no difficulty in the matter, though the French Article is applied to the Nouns in so many forms, while ours always retains the same form; and though in some of the instances above given, the French say in *one word* what we say in *two*. Let me go, here, a little out of my way, in order to inform you, that you will find the like of this to a great extent by-and-by. We say, to *write, to read*, and the like; but they say, *écrire, lire*. We say, *you will write*; but they say, *vous écrirez*; making use of two words where we make use of three. The *reason* of this will appear very clearly to you by-and-by; but the thing itself I have just mentioned here, to guard you against expecting to find the two languages answering each other *word for word*.

82. But, we have not yet done with the use of the *Article* with nouns. As far as relates to *common* nouns, taken in a *definite* sense; that is to say, when we are speaking of particular persons or things by names common to all of the kind, the above rules make all clear enough. But, there are three other views to take of the use of the *Article* with nouns; first, when the noun is the name of persons or things, of whom or of which there is but *one* in the universe, or when it is the name of a *species* or *sort*; second, when the noun is a *proper name*; third, when the noun means a *part*, or *parcel*, or *quantity* of any thing. In all these respects, the use of the French articles differs greatly from that of the English; and this will be seen in the three following paragraphs, to which I must beg you to pay strict attention.

83. When there is but one of the kind in the

Universe, we, in English, sometimes make use of the Article with the noun, and sometimes not. We say, *God, Christ, heaven, hell*. The French say, *Dieu*; but, they say, *le Christ, le ciel, l'enfer*. They, as well as we, say *la mer*, the sea, *l'air*, the air, *la terre*, the earth, *le soleil*, the sun, *la lune*, the moon. This is, however, a matter of such limited extent; there are so few nouns of this description, that you will very soon learn to avoid errors in applying the article to them. But, when nouns are the names of whole *species* or *sorts*, the manner of applying the article in French is very different from that of applying it in English. We sometimes, in English, in speaking of animals, make use of the *singular* number to express a whole kind, and then we use the article; as, *the dog* is faithful; and, the French do the same; as, *le chien* est fidele. Just take a look, for a moment, at paragraph 54, where this matter was before spoken of. In speaking of mankind, we do not use the article. We say, for instance, *man* is the master of other animals. The French say *l'homme*. They adhere to the use of the article in every such case. We, generally, in speaking of kinds, which consist of *individuals*, animate or inanimate, make use of the plural number, and, in such cases, use no article; as *baskets* are useful, *owls* catch *mice*. But, the French always put the article; as, *les paniers* sont utiles, *les hibous* attrapent *les souris*. We sometimes, indeed, make use of the article in cases that appear to be like these; but, it is when we do not mean *the whole* of a kind. We say, for instance, *the apples* are dear, *the owls* are numerous, this year. But, here we do not mean to speak of *the whole* of the kinds; but of the apples and of the owls that come somewhat within our observation or knowledge. The French make no distinctions of this sort: they always put the article. We, when we have to speak of things, the kinds of which admit not of individuality, such as *sugar, water, wine, beer* and the like, *do not use the article*; as *sugar* is sweet. But, the

French always use it; as *le sucre est doux*. We, as in the case of *the apples*, just mentioned, sometimes use the article before these nouns expressing masses; but the French always do it. It is the same with regard to the nouns expressing the feelings and qualities of the mind, the virtues, the vices, and so forth. We say, for instance, *friendship*, *shame*, *anger*; they say, *l'amitié*, *la honte*, *la colère*.

84. Next, as to *proper* names. You have seen in paragraph 53, what *proper* names or nouns are. Just read that paragraph over once more, before you go on further with this. Now, then, observe; we do not use articles before proper names of human beings, nor before proper names given to animals of any sort. We sometimes make use of a sort of poetic licence, and say *the Swifts*, or *the Racines*; meaning men of the stamp of those celebrated writers; and, in the same sort of way, we say *a Swift*, or *a Racine*. The French do the same; but, this is a mere licence, and has nothing to do with Grammar. But, the French use the article with the proper names of *countries*, and in many other instances, when we do not; as you will find more fully explained, when you come to the *Syntax* of Articles.

85. We now come to the noun, when used to express a *part*, a *parcel*, or a *quantity* of persons, or things; and here the difference between the two languages is very great. We, generally, in these cases, make use of the word *some*; as, give me *some* wine; give me *some* beer; give me *some* apples. But the French know nothing at all of the word *some*, used in this sense. Their word *quelque* answers to our *some*; but, they do not use it in the manner here spoken of. They use the article, united, as we have above seen it, with the preposition *de* (of), according to the gender and number of the noun; thus:

Give me *some* wine,  
Give me *some* beer,  
Give me *some* apples,

Donnez-moi *du* vin.  
Donnez-moi *de la* bière.  
Donnez-moi *des* pommes.

That is to say, give me a *part* or *quantity* of the wine, and so on. But, observe, when there is an *adjective* that comes *before* the noun, the article is left out, and the preposition *de* (of) only is used ; as,

Give me <i>some good</i> wine,	Donnez-moi <i>de bon</i> vin.
Give me <i>some good</i> beer,	Donnez-moi <i>de bonne</i> bière.
Give me <i>some good</i> apples,	Donnez-moi <i>de bonnes</i> pommes.

The reason is, you see, the *adjective* *changes* to agree with the noun in gender and number ; and, therefore, the article is not wanted. Here we have, give me *of good wine* ; and so on, and not *of the* as in the former cases. But, observe again, if the *adjective* come *after* the noun ; then the article must be used ; as,

Give me <i>some red</i> wine,	Donnez-moi <i>du vin rouge</i> .
Give me <i>some strong</i> beer,	Donnez-moi <i>de la bière forte</i> .
Give me <i>some ripe</i> apples,	Donnez-moi <i>des pommes mûres</i> .

That is to say, word for word : give me *of the wine red* ; give me *of the beer strong* ; give me *of the apples ripe*. And, strange as this seems to our ears, a Frenchman would not understand you if you were to say, *Donnez-moi quelque rouge vin*. Nay, if you were to say *rouge vin, forte bière, and mûres pommes*, he would wonder what you meant. Yet, this is what you naturally would say, unless you were taught the principles and rules of Grammar.

86. I have now gone through the *Etymology* of the *Noun*. I have considered it in its Branches, its Genders, its Numbers and its Cases ; and I have, towards the close of this Letter, given an explanation of the use of the *Article*, which I could not so well give, until I had laid before you an account of the *Noun*. I shall, in the next letter, proceed to the *Etymology* of the *Pronoun* ; but, before you enter on that, I beg you to read once more, very attentively, all the foregoing Letters.

## LETTER VII.

## ETYMOLOGY OF PRONOUNS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

87. In paragraph 34, I described to you, in general terms, the nature and use of Pronouns. We are now going to treat of the Etymology of this sort of words: that is to say, we are going to see how they *vary their forms* to suit themselves to the various circumstances in which they may be wanted to be used; and this variation of form we shall find much more extensive in the French than in the English Pronouns.

88. There are five Classes of Pronouns: the *Personal*; the *Possessive*; the *Relative*; the *Demonstrative*; and the *Indeterminate*. For you, in this early stage of your study, to be able to distinguish these Classes one from the other, is impossible. You will be able to do this by-and-by; but, it is necessary for me to make the division into Classes here; because I shall have, almost directly, to speak of Pronouns under these different denominations.

89. **PERSONAL PRONOUNS** are those which *take the place of nouns*. This office is, indeed, performed by all Pronouns, and hence comes their name. But, the other pronouns do not supply the place of nouns in the same way, and in a manner so complete. There are *Three Persons*: for instance, "*I am writing to you about him.*" You see, then, that the pronoun which represents the person that speaks is in the *first* person; that which stands in the place of the name of the person who is spoken to, is in the *second* person; and that which stands in the place of the name of the person spoken of, is in the *third* person. This circumstance of person is a matter to be strictly attended to: because, as you will by-and-by see, the *verbs* vary their endings to correspond with the person of the pronoun.



90. Pronouns of the *First* and *Second* Person vary their form to express *number*, and those of the Third Person to express *gender* also. And here we come to a comparison between the English and the French in this respect.

PERSON.	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
1st . . . . .	I,	je.	we,	nous.
2d . . . . .	thou,	tu.	you,	vous.
3d Masculine,	he,	il.	they,	ils.
Feminine,	she,	elle.	they,	elles.
Neuter . .	it.		they.	

Thus, you see, as was explained in paragraphs 54 and 55, the French have *no neuter gender*. All, with them, is *male* or *female*; so that they have no word to answer to our *it*; nor have they any use for such a word. In speaking of a man, we say, *he* is; of a stick, *it* is: but, they have *il* est, in both cases. Besides this, you see, that, in the third person plural, we have only our *they*, whether we speak of males, females, or neuters. But they have a change in their pronoun to agree with the gender of the nouns that the pronouns represent. Whether we speak of males or of females, or of neuters, we say *they* are, but the French, in speaking of males, say *ils* sont, and, of females, *elles* sont.

91. Besides the *Number* and *Gender*, there is the *Case* to be considered in these personal pronouns. In paragraphs, from 72 to 77 inclusive, I explained the nature of the *cases*; and I there apprized you, that, when you came to the *pronoun*, you would find, that it had *different endings*, or, rather, that it assumed different forms, to accord with the different cases: as, *I*, *me*, *he*, *him*; and so on. The following table will exhibit the difference between the English and the French, in this respect; but, there will still remain much to be explained.

Person.	SINGULAR NUMBER.			
	Nominative.	Possessive.		Objective.
1st . . . . .	I,	je.	of me, <i>de moi</i> .	me, <i>me, moi</i> .
2d . . . . .	thou,	tu.	of thee, <i>de toi</i> .	thee, <i>te, toi</i> .
3d Masculine,	he,	il.	of him, <i>de lui</i> .	him, <i>le, lui</i> .
Feminine,	she,	elle.	of her, <i>d'elle</i> .	her, <i>la, elle, lut</i> .
Neuter, . .	it.		of it.	it.

Before we go to the Plural Number, we must pay a

little attention to this table. You have been told about the numbers and genders before; but here you see new changes to designate the *cases*, and you see, that these changes are not nearly so frequent in English as in French. You see, in the objective case, *me* and *moi* for our *me*; you see *le* and *lui* for our *him*; you see *la* and *lui* for our *her*. Now, sometimes the one of these is used and sometimes the other. When the one ought to be used, and when the other, the *Syntax* of Pronouns will teach you; but, let me just give you an example here. *Donnez-moi le bâton que Jean me donna hier.* That is, give *me* the stick that John gave *me* yesterday. The *Syntax* will teach you why it ought to be *moi* in one place and *me* in the other. You see *le* and *la* in this table, answering to our *him* and *her*; and this may puzzle you, because you have seen so much of the *le* and *la* as *Articles*. But I observed to you before, in paragraph 43, that words frequently belonged to *two* parts of speech; or, rather, that, though containing the *same letters*, they were, in different situations, different words. Example: *Envoyez ici le messenger que je le récompense.* That is, send hither *the messenger* that I may reward *him*. Again: *Prenez la jument et mettez la dans la basse-cour.* Take *the mare* and put *her* in *the yard*. Here the word *la* comes three times: twice it is an article, answering to our *the*, and once a pronoun, answering to our *her*. For some time, you will think that this is *very strange*, and that this French is an odd sort of language. The French think just the same of ours, till they understand it; and, you will find, by-and-by, that it is all precisely as it ought to be, and that it would be odd indeed, if it were any thing other than that which it is. We now come to the plural number.

Person.	Nominative.	PLURAL NUMBER.		Objective.
		Possessive.		
1st . . .	we, <i>nous.</i>	of us, <i>de nous.</i>	us, <i>nous.</i>	
2d . . .	you, <i>vous.</i>	of you, <i>de vous.</i>	you, <i>vous.</i>	
3d Masc.,	they, <i>ils, eux.</i>	of them, <i>d'eux.</i>	them, <i>les, leur, eux.</i>	
Fem.,	they, <i>elles.</i>	of them, <i>d'elles.</i>	them, <i>les, leur, elles.</i>	
Nent,	they.	of them.	them.	

Here seems to be a pretty confusion ; for here is our *they* sometimes answered by *ils*, then by *eux*, and both in the masculine. Then our *them* is sometimes *les* and sometimes *leur*, in both genders ; and then, it is *eux* in one gender, and *elles* in the other. Here, too, we see the plural article *les*, answering to our *them*. But, all this, puzzling as it is to you at present, will become perfectly plain, by-and-by. You will be told, for instance, that, when the verb signifies communication from one person or thing to another, it takes *leur*, and that, when it signifies something done to an object, it takes *les*, or *eux* or *elles*, as the case may be. Speaking of cattle, we should say mettez-*les* dans la basse-cour et donnez *leur* du foin. Put *them* in the yard and give *them* some hay. That is to say, give to *them* some hay.

92. Once more let me remind you, that you must not be at all surprised at what appears to you to be a strange placing of the French words. You must get this surprise out of your mind, as soon as possible, and learn to think, that it is *right*, that one language should differ thus from another. Remember also what I have said about the *same letters* not always making the *same word*. For instance, the *leur* that you see here means *to them* ; but, it means, in other cases, *their*. In the first instance, it is a personal pronoun ; in the latter, a possessive pronoun. Pay attention to this, or it will cause you to waste your time.

93. Before I go to the next class of Pronouns, let me observe, that the second person singular, *tu*, *toi*, *te*, answering to our *thou* and *thee*, are not used in French much more than our *thou* and *thee* are in English. Something more they are indeed ; for the French *thou* little children and also very low people. They do it, too, when upon terms of very great familiarity. But, generally speaking, they, like us, use the second person plural, instead of the second person singular ; and, as we say *you* instead of *thou*, they say *vous* instead of *tu*. The same may be observed as to *thy* and *thine*, of which you will see more presently.

**94. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.** These do not indeed *take the place* of nouns ; but, as they come immediately from the Personal Pronouns, it is better to place them here than any where else. They are unaffected by *case*, because they have nouns always *with them* expressed or understood. They are as follows :

PERSON.	SINGULAR PERSON.	PLURAL PERSON.
1st . . . . .	my, <i>mon, ma, mes.</i>	our, <i>notre, nos.</i>
2d . . . . .	thy, <i>ton, ta, tes.</i>	your, <i>votre, vos.</i>
3d Masculine,	his, <i>son, sa, ses.</i>	their, <i>leur, leurs.</i>
Feminine,	her, <i>son, sa, ses.</i>	their, <i>leur, leurs.</i>
Neuter, . .	its.	their.

Here you see a great many changes of the French pronoun ; and you see, that our one word *my*, for instance, has three words by either of which it may be answered. But, observe, our possessive pronouns agree in *number* and *gender* (where they meddle with gender) with the noun which is the *possessor* ; whereas the French possessive pronoun pays no attention to the *possessor*, but agrees in number and gender with the persons or things *possessed*. Thus, while we say, in English, *my* father, *my* mother, *my* brothers, *my* sisters ; the French say, *mon* père, *ma* mère, *mes* frères, *mes* sœurs. If we have to speak of a Master's maid-servant and of a Mistress's man-servant, we must say, *his* maid and *her* man. But, the French must say, *sa* servante and *son* domestique. So that, you will remember, the gender, as stated in the above table, applies to the *English only*. The French possessive pronoun forms itself by a rule wholly different from ours. It agrees in number and gender with the person or thing that is *possessed*, and not that is the *possessor*. But, you will further observe, that, in the plural number of things possessed, the French possessive pronouns take no notice of gender. I say, *mes* mains, my hands, and *mes* bras, my arms, though the first is feminine and the last masculine. Neither, you see, is gender taken any notice of in the *plural persons*, though the things possessed be in the singular. I must say, *mon* chien, my dog,

*ma* poule, my hen ; but, I must say, *notre* chien and *notre* poule. The same remark applies to *votre* and *leur*, your and their.

95. But, there are some of these possessive pronouns, which stand without the noun. They refer immediately to it indeed ; but they do not go directly before it, like the others. Such as *mine* and *yours* ; as, whose *pen* is that ? It is *mine*. Thus, the pronoun, though it directly refers to the noun, and denotes possession, does not come directly before it. These, in French, take the article ; and, in the above case, in answer to the question about the pen, I must answer, *la mienne* ; and not call it simply *mine*. As the pronouns must take the article, the article must agree with them, in number and gender, as with the nouns, as before shown in the Etymology of nouns. These pronouns themselves vary their form to express both number and gender in the three persons singular, and to express number in the three persons plural ; as follows :

SINGULAR POSSESSION.			PLURAL POSSESSION.	
	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
<i>mine,</i>	<i>le mien,</i>	<i>la mienne,</i>	<i>les miens,</i>	<i>les miennes,</i>
<i>thine,</i>	<i>le tien,</i>	<i>la tienne,</i>	<i>les tiens,</i>	<i>les tiennes,</i>
<i>his,</i>	<i>le sien,</i>	<i>la sienne,</i>	<i>les siens,</i>	<i>les siennes,</i>
<i>hers,</i>	<i>le sien,</i>	<i>la sienne,</i>	<i>les siens,</i>	<i>les siennes,</i>
<i>ours,</i>	<i>le nôtre,</i>	<i>la nôtre,</i>	<i>les nôtres,</i>	<i>les nôtres,</i>
<i>yours,</i>	<i>le vôtre,</i>	<i>la vôtre,</i>	<i>les vôtres,</i>	<i>les vôtres,</i>
<i>theirs,</i>	<i>le leur,</i>	<i>la leur,</i>	<i>les leurs,</i>	<i>les leurs.</i>

The Article is applied to these exactly as to nouns, and according to the instructions in paragraphs from 78 to 83 inclusive. Thus we say, *du mien*, *de la mienne*, *des miens*, *des miennes*, *au mien*, *à la mienne*, *aux miens* and *aux miennes* ; and so on, throughout the whole of these pronouns, precisely as in the case of nouns, so amply explained in the paragraphs just referred to. Once more, before I quit these possessive pronouns, let me again remind you, that whenever they express *gender*, it is the gender of the thing *possessed* ; and not the gender of the possessor.

96. RELATIVE PRONOUNS. The following *pronouns* are called *relative*, because they, gene-

rally relate to the nouns which have gone before in the sentence. Indeed all pronouns relate to nouns. But, it is useful to put them in classes, and, therefore, this appellation is given to these pronouns which follow. The *Relatives*, in English, are *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*, in some cases. *Who* becomes *whose* and *whom*: the other three do not change their form. The French *Relatives* are *qui*, *lequel*, *quoi*; and some others that I shall mention presently. We, in some cases, use *who* and *that* indifferently for persons and things. *Which* we apply only to things. These relative Pronouns of the two languages answer to each other thus:

who,	qui.	whom,	que, qui.
that,	qui, que.	which,	qui, que, lequel.
whose,	de qui, dont.	what,	quoi, que, quel.
of whom.	de qui, dont.		

This is not the place for me to go into a detail of the cases, when one of these is to be used, and when the other. That will be done when I come to the *Syntax of Pronouns*, after I shall have gone through the *Etymology of Verbs*; for we must speak of these, when we are giving instructions for the proper use of the pronouns. It seems, at first sight, that there must be great difficulty here. But you will find that all these difficulties gradually disappear; and, at last, you will wonder that they ever appeared to be difficulties.

97. None of the above pronouns, except *quel* and *lequel*, change their form to express number and gender. These two do it thus:

MASCULINE.		FEMININE.	
quel,	quels.	quelle,	quelles.
lequel,	lesquels.	laquelle,	lesquelles.

The former does not take the article. It merely takes the preposition. But the latter takes the article, and joins it to itself.

de quel,	de quels.	de quelle,	de quelles.
à quel,	à quels.	à quelle,	à quelles.
duquel,	desquels.	de laquelle,	desquelles.
auquel,	auxquels.	à laquelle,	auxquelles.

**98. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS** are those which *point out* persons or things in contradistinction to others. Ours are *this, these, that, those*, and, sometimes *what*: as, *this* is the man whom I wanted to see; *those* are the books which I wish you to read. The French have *one* pronoun of this sort, from which all the rest appear to come; and that is, *ce*, which, according to circumstances, means, *this* or *that*. It becomes *cet* before a singular noun masculine, beginning with a *vowel* or an *h* mute; *cette* before all feminine nouns in the singular; and *ces* before all plural nouns of both genders. But, besides this, several other pronouns grow out of this one, and assume a great variety of forms to fit themselves for various situations and circumstances. The following table presents all these variations.

## SINGULAR.

<i>Masculine.</i>		<i>Feminine.</i>	
<i>ce</i> or <i>cet</i> ,	this, or that.	<i>cette</i> ,	this, or that.
<i>celui</i> ,	he, or that.	<i>celle</i> ,	she, or that.
<i>celui-ci</i> ,	this.	<i>celle-ci</i> ,	this.
<i>celui-là</i> ,	that.	<i>celle-là</i> ,	that.

## PLURAL.

<i>Masculine.</i>		<i>Feminine.</i>	
<i>ces</i> ,	these, or those.	<i>ces</i> ,	these, or those.
<i>ceux</i> ,	those.	<i>celles</i> ,	those.
<i>ceux-ci</i> ,	these.	<i>celles-ci</i> ,	these.
<i>ceux-là</i> ,	those.	<i>celles-là</i> ,	those.

Besides these, there are *ceci* and *cela*; *ce* is sometimes put before *qui* and *que*, making *this that*; as, *ce que* vous dites; *this that* you say; or, as we should express it, that which you say. All these pronouns take the preposition *de* and *à* before them occasionally; but, *not the article*. Observe, I beg you, the little words, *ci* and *là* (the latter with an accent to distinguish it from the article.) These you see, are added to some of these pronouns. *Ci* means *here*, and *là* means *there*. So that, taken literally, *celui-ci* means *this here*, and *celui-là* means *this there*. There is, in fact, precisely this same meaning in *ceci* and *cela*; only the two former admit of

tion to answer the purposes of number and gender, and the two latter do not.

**INDETERMINATE PRONOUNS** make the class of words of this Part of Speech, and, with remarks on them, I shall conclude my Letter on the Etymology of Pronouns. Amongst the most important of the *Indeterminate Pronouns* are *le, en, et, et, and se*. These are words of great use in French; and properly speaking, we have, in English, nothing that answers to some of them. We sometimes, indeed, say, *one* is pleased, *one* hears, *one* thinks, and the like; but this is not the French or is it congenial to our language. And, then, when we say *one's-self*, it is seldom in the way that the French use their *se*; besides the *se* becomes *soi*, in many cases, and is a most prevalent and efficient pronoun in the French language. Therefore I must attempt to give you the *English* of these words; but, request you to bear them in mind as they are to be explained in the *Syntax* of Pronouns. I'll now give you a list of all the Indeterminate Pronouns; and, you will see, that, though there are variations in the form of the English pronouns in this class, it is far otherwise with those of the French. Some, indeed, you will find without variation of form; but the greater part vary their form according to gender as well as number.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
tout,	toute,	tous,	toutes.
l'un et l'autre,	l'une et l'autre,	les uns et les autres,	les unes et les autres.
l'un ou l'autre,	l'une ou l'autre,	les uns ou les autres,	les unes ou les autres.
ni l'un ni l'autre,	ni l'une ni l'autre,	ni les uns ni les autres,	ni les unes ni les autres.
l'un l'autre,	l'une l'autre,	les uns les autres,	les unes les autres.
quelqu'un,	quelqu'une,	quelques-uns,	quelques-unes
chacun,	chacune,		
aucun,	aucune,		
nul,	nulle.		



SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
Masc.	Fem.	
any body, } whoever, } whatever, } nobody, } many, } nothing, } it, } so, } or } such, } of it, } of him, } of her, } of them, } to it, } to him, } to her, } to them, } one, } they, } we, } people, } self, } or } selves, }	quelconque, quelconque, personne, plusieurs, rien, le. en. y. on. se. which sometimes becomes <i>soi</i> .	<p>Singular Number only, and of both genders.</p> <p>Plural Number only, and of both genders.</p> <p>Singular Number only, and of both genders.</p> <p>These never change their forms.</p>

100. This is a formidable list ; but it will be overcome by industry and patience. Some of these words are not always pronouns ; and, as to the *last five*, they have by some, been called *relative* pronouns, while others have called them *personal* pronouns. They do not appear to me to belong to either of those classes ; but seem to come under the appellation given to this class. However, it signifies not much how we class them, so that we learn *the use of them* ; so that we get at their true meaning, and learn how to apply them ; on what occasions to use them, and how to place them in sentences. To teach us this must be the business of the *Syntax*.

## LETTER VIII.

## ETYMOLOGY OF ADJECTIVES.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

101. Turn to paragraph 35 ; for, there you will find my description of this part of speech. Having read that paragraph, you will now learn the difference between our Adjectives and those of the French, and this difference you will find to be great indeed. Our adjective *is*, in all its different situations, the same in *form* ; that is, composed of the *same letters*, except where its form is changed to express *degrees* in the qualities, the properties, or the dimensions, of the nouns to which it is applied : as, a *great* man, a *greater* man, the *greatest* man. This is all that our adjectives change their form to accomplish. Sometimes we mark these degrees of comparison by the help of the words *more* and *most* ; and we *can* always do it if we like : as a *great* man, a *more great* man, the *most great* man. This is not done generally, when our adjectives are words of one or two syllables ; but, it is when they are longer words : as a *deplorable* event, a *more deplorable* event, or a *most deplorable* event. In this respect, the French language is still more simple than ours ; for, it, almost *always*, marks the degrees of comparison in this way : as, un *grand* homme (a great man), un *plus grand* homme, le *plus grand* homme. There are a few words of very common use with regard to which this rule is not followed ; but, what I have to say further about the degrees of comparison, I must put off, till I have spoken of the *genders* and *numbers* of Adjectives.

102. In paragraph 55, I opened this subject ; and you will do well to read that paragraph again, together with the two following ones. Indeed, it is necessary to read them, as they belong to what I am now writing. Thus, you see that, while our adjectives have no changes of form, except to express the

degrees of comparison, no French adjective can be used with propriety (except by mere accident) unless we know how to change its form to make it agree in *gender* and *number* with the noun to which it relates. Here is another, and a very great matter, wholly unknown to our language. Our word *white*, for instance, is always *white*, whether applied to paper, to skin, or to one paper or two papers, or one skin or two skins. Not so the French word; that is, papier *blanc*, peau *blanche*, papiers *blancs*, peaux *blanches*. Now, then, let us see, what *assistance* we can get from *rules*, to enable us to perform this very important part of the business of speaking and writing French. For, mind, errors in this are essential. It will seem strange to you, but, it is a fact, that, if you were to say, papier *blanche*, or peau *blanc*, a Frenchman would *scarcely understand* you. Odd as it appears to us, that the Article, the Pronoun, and the Adjective must all agree in gender with the noun; useless as this appears to us, it must take place in French, or the words that you would utter would be more broken and ridiculous gibberish than ever a Frenchman uttered when only just beginning to make an attempt to speak English.

103. It being, then, absolutely necessary that we know how to vary the adjectives, so as to make them agree in gender and number with their nouns, let me now speak to you of the rules for this purpose, beginning with those which relate to the *genders*.

104. This is by no means so difficult a matter as the *gender of nouns*. In the case of the adjectives, we get at something worthy of being called *rule*; whereas, in that of the nouns, we only tease and torment ourselves, and add greatly to our toil, by endeavours to find out rules to ease us of our labour. The Adjective, in its primitive state, as, *grand* (great) is always applicable to the noun of the masculine gender and singular number. What we want to know, therefore, is, how to change its form so as to make it of the *feminine* gender. By looking into the Dic-

ionary for the French word to answer to our word *pretty*, we find *joli*. This tells us that, as *homme* is *man*, we may say *joli homme*. But, it must not be *oli* before *femme*, woman; and we want to know what it must be. The large Dictionary will, indeed, tell us; but, we cannot always have this in our hands: therefore, we seek for rules; and, in this case, we shall find them convenient and easy.

105. The feminine form is given to the adjective by making some *addition*, or *change*, in the ending of it; as, *petit* (little), *petite*; or, as, *bas* (low), *basse*. Our rules, therefore, must be founded on the ending of the primitive adjective; and, they are as follows.

**FIRST RULE.** All Adjectives that end with an *e* mute are of both genders. They do not change their form on account of gender; as *un homme sage*, *une femme sage*: a wise man, a wise woman.

**SECOND RULE.** Now, *generally speaking*, the others only *add* an *e* mute to form their feminines; as *impertinent*, *impertinente*. And, observe, this is invariably the case with all adjectives ending with *vowels*; except *beni*, blessed, and *favori*, favourite. These make in their feminine, *benite* and *favourite*.

**THIRD RULE.** Adjectives ending in *f*, change the *f* into *ve*; as, *positif*, *positive*.

**FOURTH RULE.** Adjectives ending in *c*, change the *c* into *che*; as, *blanc*, *blanche*. There are four exceptions to this rule, *public*, *Grec*, *Turc*, *caduc*, which change the *c* into *que*; as, *public*, *publique*.

**FIFTH RULE.** Adjectives ending in *n*, with an *o* or *ie* before the *n*, add *ne*; as, *bon*, *bonne*; but, if there be not an *o* or *ie* before the *n*, the adjectives ending in *n* follow the *second rule*; that is to say, they add an *e* mute; as, *fin*, *fine*.

**SIXTH RULE.** Adjectives ending in *l*, with *e*, *o*, *u*, or *ei*, before it, add *le*; as *cruel*, *cruelle*. But, if the final *l* be not preceded by one of these

vowels, or by *ei*, the adjectives ending in *l* follow the general rule, and simply take an *e* mute in addition; as, *futil*, *futile*. One exception there is, however, in *gentil*, which makes *gentille*.

**SEVENTH RULE.** Adjectives ending in *t*, with *e* or *a* before it, generally add *te*; as *net*, *nette*. But, this is not without exception, for, *secret* becomes *secrète*, which is the case with some others.

**EIGHTH RULE.** Adjectives ending in *eur* or *eux*, change them into *euse*; as, *moqueur* (sneering), *moqueuse*; *religieux* (religious), *religieuse*. But, of the adjectives ending in *eur*, the following are exceptions to this rule, and follow the second rule; that is to say, add an *e*.

	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>
anterior,	antérieur,	antérieure.
posterior,	postérieur,	postérieure.
citerior,	citérieur,	citérieure.
ulterior,	ultérieur,	ultérieure.
interior,	intérieur,	intérieure.
exterior,	extérieur,	extérieure.
major,	majeur	majeure.
minor,	mineur,	mineure.
superior,	supérieur,	supérieure.
inferior,	inférieur,	inférieure.
better,	meilleur,	meilleure.

The following can be brought under no rule. They are few in number; they are words of very common use, and their manner of forming their feminines, may be quickly learned.

	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>
soft,	mou,	molle.
foolish,	fou,	folle.
fine,	beau,	belle.
new,	nouveau,	nouvelle.
false,	faux,	fausse.
long,	long,	longue.
sweet,	doux,	douce.
reddish,	roux,	rousse.
fresh,	frais,	fraiche.
benignant,	benin,	benigne.
malignant,	malin,	maligne.
jealous,	jaloux,	jalouse.
green,	verd,	verte.

*It is to be observed, that beau was formerly writ-*

ten *bel*; and we now say, *bel homme*, *bel esprit*; and *bel et bon* (handsome and good), is a common phrase. *Nouveau* was formerly written *nouvel*; and, there may be a case or two in which it is still used in this form. But these are trifling, and, indeed, almost insignificant exceptions. And to make exceptions, unless they be of importance, is to cause a great waste of time.

106. If these rules be properly attended to, there can be few mistakes as to the gender of adjectives, which, you will bear in mind, depends, in all cases, upon the gender of the nouns to which they belong.

107. As to the NUMBER, adjectives form their *plurals* from their singulars in the same manner that nouns do, and that manner is described fully in paragraph 68, to which you must now go back. Read that whole paragraph again very carefully, and apply to the adjectives what you there find in the five rules relating to the numbers of nouns. The adjective is to *agree with its noun* in number; as, *un grand homme*, a great man; *deux grands hommes*, two great men. Having, then, the number of the noun, you use the singular, or the plural, of the adjective accordingly; and, again I observe, you are to form the plural from the singular according to the five rules in paragraph 68, which apply to adjectives as well as to nouns, and which, therefore, it is wholly unnecessary to repeat here.

108. There are about twenty adjectives ending in *al*, which, like some nouns, have *no plural number*, except in a particular instance or two; but, a detail of these is unnecessary here; because the manner of using them will be amply taught, by-and-by, in the course of the Exercises. This is one of those matters on which a great deal of time might be employed with great ingenuity, but with very little profit.

109. There now remains to be noticed the manner of forming the DEGREES OF COMPARISON, mentioned before in paragraph 101. It was there observed, that the French, instead of changing, so frequently,

as we do, the endings of the adjectives to denote *degrees* in the qualities and properties of dimensions of the nouns, make use *almost always*, as we do *sometimes*, of *plus* and *le plus*, answering to our *more* and *the most*. Suppose we be speaking of a *pretty garden*, the degrees would be formed thus :

pretty,	prettier,	prettiest.
joli,	plus joli,	le plus joli

This is almost the invariable rule in French. But, observe that the *le* becomes *la* if the noun be a feminine ; so that, if, with this same adjective, we were speaking of a *flower*, which is feminine, the words must stand thus :

pretty,	prettier,	prettiest.
jolie,	plus jolie,	la plus jolie.

110. There needs nothing further to be said on a matter so plain. But, there are a few French adjectives, which are *irregular* in this respect. We have, in our language, a few such ; as *good*, which does not make *gooder* and *goodest*, but *better* and *best*. We have besides, *bad*, *little*, *much*, which are also irregular. The French have only four adjectives of this description ; and these answer, in point of meaning, to the first three of ours. They are, *bon*, good ; *mauvais*, bad ; *méchant*, wicked ; and *petit*, little. Their degrees are formed thus :

bon,	meilleur,	le meilleur,
good,	better,	the best.
mauvais,	pire,	le pire,
bad,	worse,	the worst.
méchant,	pire,	le pire,
wicked,	wickeder,	wickedest.
petit,	moindre,	le moindre,
little,	less,	the least.

Observe, however, that all these, except the first, frequently form their degrees by the aid of *plus* and *le plus*. *Plus mauvais*, *plus méchant*, and *plus petit*, are proper enough ; and even *plus bon* is not absolutely bad French. Still, the above is the usual mode of forming the degrees of these adjectives, which form the only exceptions to the general rule.

111. There are, as you will see by-and-by, some of the *Adverbs*, which have degrees of comparison; but, that is a trifling matter; and, at any rate, it does not belong to that part of speech, the Etymology of which has been the subject of this Letter. There is much to attend to in *placing* the adjective; for, it must sometimes come before, and sometimes after the noun. But, this is matter for the Syntax of Adjectives. The great thing belonging to adjectives, is, the *gender*. The *number* must be attended to also; but we are most apt to commit mistakes in regard to the genders. We, English, are very apt to look upon these genders of adjectives as being useless. This is, as you will find, a great error. They not only give to the language a pleasing variety of sound; but, in many cases, they tend to prevent sentences from being equivocal.

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## LETTER IX.

### ETYMOLOGY OF VERBS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

112. In paragraph 36, I explained to you what *sort* of words Verbs are. You must now read that paragraph again with great attention. Having done that, you will enter on an inquiry into the *variations of form*, to which words of this sort are liable; and you will find, that, in French, these variations are upwards of *thirty* in number, while in English, they are only *four*. The verb to *kill*, for instance, becomes, *killest*, *kills*, *killed*, or *killing*. This verb can take no other than one of these forms; but, the French verb, *tuer*, which answers to our verb kill, does, as you will see by-and-by, assume more than *thirty* different forms; that is to say, is composed, under so many different circumstances, of different letters.

113. Now, the Etymology of verbs teaches us when one of these forms is to be used, and when



another; and this, there being so many different forms, must evidently be a matter of great importance. In order to know what form the verb is to be in; that is to say, what letters it is to be composed of, we must first learn something about the different circumstances in which verbs may be placed; because, as I have just observed, the verb changes its form to accommodate itself to those different circumstances. These circumstances are, *Person*, *Time*, and *Mode*. Verbs are distinguished as *active* or *neuter*; but, that is another matter, and is to be treated of further on. At present we have to do with the three circumstances just mentioned; because on them *depend all the changes* in the form of the verb.

114. As to **PERSON**, you have, in the last Letter but one, had the distinction about the *persons* fully explained to you; but you will do well now to read paragraphs 89 and 90 again. I am to speak of the Modes by-and-by; but, I must here anticipate a little. There are *four* modes: the *Infinitive*, the *Indicative*, the *Subjunctive*, and the *Imperative*. The distinctions will appear more clearly hereafter; but, it is necessary to say here, that the *Infinitive Mode* exhibits the verb in its primitive and unrestricted sense; as, *to kill*. In this Mode it is a sort of Noun in point of grammar; as, *to kill a man* unlawfully is murder; *to kill geese* gives us feathers. This is called the *Infinitive Mode*, because when used in this *Mode*, or manner, the verb is in its large and general sense, and not confined to person or time. But, that which induces me to introduce this matter here, is, to show you, before we enter into a comparison of the two languages with respect to verbs, the difference between an English and a French verb in this their primitive, or original form. Our verb, in this state, has the word *to* always with it and *belonging to it*. The French verb has no such thing. It is complete in itself; and, accordingly, *tuer* means *to kill*. Bearing this in mind we will now proceed to consider the circumstance of *Per-*

*son.* The verb must *agree* in person with the noun or pronoun. For instance, I say, *I kill*; but, I must say, *thou killest*, and *he kills*. Then if I am speaking of the act of a number of persons, I must not say, *they kills*, but *they kill*. However, in our language, the changes in the form of the verb are, as was before observed, few, while, in the French, they are numerous; and I will now give you a specimen of the great difference of the two languages in this respect.

je tue,	I kill,	nous tuons,	we kill,
tu tues,	thou killest,	vous tuez,	you kill,
il tue,	he kills,	ils tuent,	they kill.

Here you see, there are only three different forms of the English verb, while there are *five* of the French; and these differing, too, very widely from each other.

115. **TIME** is the next circumstance; for an action, or a state of being, may be spoken of as in the *present*, the *past*, or the *future*, time; as: *I kill*, *I killed*, *I shall kill*. The verb changes its form, therefore, to suit itself to this circumstance of *time*; but, its changes in French are very different from the changes in English. In English we generally add *ed* to the *present time* of the verb, in order to make the *past time*; as: *I kill*, which makes, *I killed*. I must stop here to remark, that we, as well as the French, have some *irregular* verbs, and that these do not form their past times in the same way; as: *write*, which makes *wrote*. But this is a matter to be treated of further on. At present we must confine ourselves to an explanation of the difference in the manner in which the two languages make the changes in their verbs, in order to denote the circumstance of *time*; that is to say, in order to tell us, whether the action spoken of be done in the present, was done at a past, or is to be done at a future, time. We have seen, that in English, we simply add *ed* to the present, in order to form the *past time*; as: *kill* becomes *killed*. Let us now see the difference.

je tuoïs,	I killed,	nous tuions,	we killed,
tu tuoïs,	thou killedst,	vous tuiez,	you killed,
il tuoit,	he killed,	ils tuoient,	they killed.

Thus, you see, the difference is great indeed ; and you will, of course, see, that this circumstance of time is of great importance. But, far is this from being all with regard to the past time ; for the French have *two past times*. That which I have exhibited is called the *past imperfect* ; the other, which you will see a specimen of presently, is called the *past perfect*. When one of these is to be used, and when the other, will be explained when we come to the *Syntax* of Verbs, which we shall in Letter XXIII ; but they must be both noticed here ; for one of them is as often used as the other, and they must by no means be confounded with each other. In some cases I must translate, *I killed* by *je tuoïs* ; but, in other cases, I must translate it by *je tuai* ; and I must go through all the persons in the following manner.

je tuai,	I killed,	nous tuâmes,	we killed,
tu tuas,	thou killedst,	vous tuâtes,	you killed,
il tua,	he killed,	ils tuèrent,	they killed.

Then, as to the *future* time, we, in English, have the little words, *will* and *shall*, which we put before the verb to express the future meaning ; but, the French have no such little words : mind that, I beg you. They express the future meaning by a change in the ending of the verb itself ; and this constitutes one of the great differences in the two languages. Our words *will* and *shall*, not only express future time, but convey also a meaning as to *intention* and *obligation*. The French have no different endings of their verbs to express these, which, in their language, are to be gathered from the tenor of the whole sentence. They have complete verbs which express *will*, *power*, and *duty*, and that supply the place of our *will*, *can*, *shall*, *should*, *might*, and the rest. Letter XXIV. will contain an account of these. In exhibiting the difference between the *languages* in this respect, I shall take the word *will*

though you will understand, that I might, for this purpose, take *shall* with equal propriety.

je tuerai,	I will kill,	nous tuerons	we will kill.
tu tueras,	thou wilt kill,	vous tuerez,	you will kill.
il tuera,	he will kill,	ils tueront,	they will kill.

Great as these changes in the form of the verb are, there are others and still greater changes ; but you have now seen a sufficient specimen of those which arise out of the circumstances of *person* and of *time*.

116. **MODE** generally means *manner* ; and, in grammar, it has the same meaning. At the beginning of paragraph 114, I have spoken of the *Infinitive Mode*. I have now to speak of the three other Modes: the *Indicative*, the *Subjunctive*, and the *Imperative*, the two former of which must be carefully distinguished from each other ; because the verb, in its several times, *changes its form* to suit itself to this circumstance of Mode. The *Imperative Mode* you will find to be a matter of little difficulty ; but, when you ought to use the *Indicative*, and when the *Subjunctive*, form, you will find to be a matter of great importance. You will, therefore, give your best attention to what I am now about to say. We sometimes speak of an action in a *declaratory* manner ; that is to say, we **INDICATE**, or declare, or, in other words, merely *say*, that the action is taking place, or that it has taken, or will take, place. But, at other times we speak of it in a *conditional* manner. In these latter cases there is always something *subjoined*, in the way of condition or consequence. There is some subjoined, or **SUBJUNCTIVE**, circumstance. When, therefore, a verb is used in the first of these manners, it is in the *Indicative Mode* ; and, when in the second, it is in the *Subjunctive Mode*. These names and distinctions would be useless, if it were not that the form of the verb changes in order to agree with the *Modes*. For instance, I say, *he kills*. This simply *indicates* that he does the act. But, I must say, *he kill*, if I have a condition or consequence to subjoin : as, though *he kill* a sheep *he cannot sell it*. Thus, you see in the one case it

is *kills*, and in the other case *kill*, though the person and the number of the pronoun be the same in both cases. In our language, however, there is but little variation in the *verb itself* to express this change in the Modes. We express the greater part of the changes by the means of the little words, *may*, *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should*. The French have no such words; and, in all these cases of a subjunctive nature, they express themselves in a manner wholly different from ours, as you will see by-and-by, when you come to the Syntax of Verbs. The Verb in the *Indicative Mode* is as it has been exhibited in the two preceding paragraphs, showing the present, past, and future of the verb *to kill*. In the *Subjunctive* there is *no future*, properly so called; but, a present time and two past times. The present of the *Subjunctive* is in the three persons singular, and in the third person plural, the same precisely as the present of the *Indicative*, in the verb *tuer*. But this is not the case with some other verbs, as you will see by-and-by. The present of the *Subjunctive* is, therefore, as follows:

je tue,	I may kill,	nous tuions,	we may kill,
tu tues,	thou mayest kill,	vous tueiez,	you may kill,
il tue,	he may kill,	ils tuent,	they may kill.

Before every phrase of this sort, in this mode of the verb, there is, in French, *que*, answering to our *that*; and, in most cases, there is the *that* in English, either expressed or understood; but, I omit the *que* here; because I am here merely showing you how the verb *changes its form*. The next change, or, rather, set of changes, that it takes, is to express the *past time* of the *Subjunctive*. I shall take the word *should* to put before the English verb; but *would* or *could*, might do as well for this mere purpose of exhibiting the changes in the form of the French verb.

je tuerois,	I should kill,	nous tuerions,	we should kill,
tu tuerois,	thou shouldest kill,	vous tueriez,	you should kill,
il tueroit,	he should kill,	ils tueroient,	they should kill.

Now, this is not, strictly speaking, a *past time* either in French or in English; nor is that which I am now going to exhibit. But, it is necessary to give

them *names*; and, therefore, the above is called the *past imperfect* of the Subjunctive Mode, and the following is called the *past perfect* of the Subjunctive Mode; and this is in imitation of the *names* rather than of the *things*, used in the *Indicative Mode*. This past perfect, then, is as follows:

je tuasse, I might kill,	nous tuassions, we might kill,
tu tuasses, thou mightest kill,	vous tuassiez, you might kill,
il tuât, he might kill,	ils tuassent, they might kill.

But you must take care to remember, that it is not *always*, that these English phrases are translated by these French phrases. It frequently happens, that, where the *Indicative Mode* is used in one language, the *Subjunctive* is used in the other. These matters will be explained, when we come to the *Syntax*. What I am doing here is merely teaching you the changes in the *form* of the verbs. Of the *Modes*, then there remains only the *Imperative*. It is called *Imperative*, because it is used in *commanding*; but, it is also used in *calling to* or *invoking*. It is, in fact, in English, nothing more than the *present of the Indicative*, accompanied with some words expressing a command, a wish, or a prayer, or the like. In the verb *tuer* it causes no change at all in the form of the verb, except in the second person singular; but, this is not the case with regard to some other verbs. The first person singular has no place here; because no person commands, or calls to, himself.

—	—	tuons, let us kill,
tue, kill,	tuez, kill,	
qu'il tue, let him kill,	qu'ils tuent, let them kill.	

When we are speaking directly to another or to others, in the second person, either singular or plural, we have only to name the act that they are to do at our request or command; and, therefore, if we want them to *kill*, we simply say, *kill*. But, when there are others to *partake with us* in the act, or, where the parties who are to act are third parties, we make use of *let*. The French you see, in the first of these cases, simply use the word describing the act; as *tuons*, which means *kill we*, or *let us*

*kill*. And in the third person, whether singular or plural, they make use of *que* ; that is to say, *that*. Literally, *that* he kill, *that* they kill. The *qu'il* and *qu'ils* are written with the elision, according to the rule which you found in paragraph 24. It must not be *que il*, because *il* begins with a vowel. This is, then, *that* he kill. And, if you examine closely, you will find our own phrase to be precisely the same. For, what do we mean, by *let* him kill? We may, in some cases mean, indeed, to give him *leave* to do it ; but, in general, this is not what we mean. Our meaning, when we make use of such phrases, generally is, let *things* be so *THAT* he kill, or perform the act of killing. The French simply say, *that* he kill.

117. I have now gone through the circumstances of *Person*, *Time*, and *Mode*. But, the verb assumes *two other forms*, called the *Participles*. We have the same in English : as, *killing*, *killed*. They are called *participles*, because they partake of the nature of *adjectives* and of *verbs*. Of verbs they are *a part* ; and yet they are frequently *adjectives* : as I am *killing* a sheep ; it is a *killing* disease. In the first of these instances *killing* is a verb ; in the last an *adjective*. This is called the active participle. *Killed*, which is, with us, generally spelled like the past time of the verb, is called the passive participle. I *killed* a sheep : there is a *killed* sheep. In the first of these instances it is a verb ; in the last an adjective. You will see that the French passive participle is not the same in form as the past time of the verb.

118. Let me now lay before you a complete *Conjugation* of these two verbs, *to kill*, and *tuer*. To conjugate means, in its usual acceptation, to *join together* ; and, as used by grammarians, it means, to bring together, and to place under one view, all the *variations* in the form of a verb, beginning with the Infinitive Mode, and ending with the Participle. These two verbs, then, I will now place before you, in all their *persons*, *times*, and *modes*. But, before I give you the conjugation of a verb, let me observe

that there are *two ways of writing the past imperfect times*, of the French verbs. You see, in the conjugation opposite, *tuois, tuoit, tuoient*; and, again, *tuerois, tueroit, tueroient*. VOLTAIRE wrote *tuais*, instead of *tuois*; and so on in the other parts of the verb, where *o* comes before *i*. He has had, and has, many followers; but, as the Dictionary of the FRENCH ACADEMY adheres to the *oi*, and, as I find the greater part of standard French Books adhering to the same orthography, I adhere to it.—Observe, that there ought to be *que* before the pronouns in the present and past perfect times, especially, of the *subjunctive mode*; as: *que je tue, que je tuasse*, and so on; but I leave out the *que* for want of room in the width of the page.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Tuer, | To kill.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je tue,	I kill,
		tu tues,	thou killest,
		il tue,	he kills,
		nous tuons,	we kill,
		vous tuez,	you kill,
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils tuent.	they kill.
		je tuoia,	I killed,
		tu tuoia,	thou killedst,
		il tuoit,	he killed,
		nous tuions,	we killed,
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous tuiez,	you killed,
		ils tuoient.	they killed.
		je tuai,	I killed,
		tu tuas,	thou killedst,
		il tua,	he killed,
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	nous tuâmes,	we killed,
		vous tuâtes,	you killed,
		ils tuèrent.	they killed.
		je tuerai,	I shall kill,
		tu tueras,	thou shalt kill,
	{	il tuera,	he shall kill,
		nous tuerons,	we shall kill,
		vous tuerez,	you shall kill,
		ils tueront.	they shall kill.

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je tue,	I may kill,
		tu tues,	thou mayest kill,
		il tue,	he may kill,
		nous tuions,	we may kill,
		vous tuiez,	you may kill,
	{	ils tuent.	they may kill.



<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je tuerois,	I should kill,
		tu tuerois,	thou shouldst kill,
		il tueroit,	he should kill,
		nous tuerions,	we should kill,
		vous tueriez,	you should kill,
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	ils tueroient.	they should kill.
		je tuasse,	I might kill,
		tu tuasses,	thou mightest kill,
		il tuât,	he might kill,
		nous tuassions,	we might kill,
		vous tuassiez,	you might kill,
		ils tuassent.	they might kill.

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

tue,	kill,	tuons,	let us kill,
qu'il tue,	let him kill.	tuez,	kill,
		qu'ils tuent,	let them kill.

## PARTICIPLES.

tuant,	killing.	tué,	killed.
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119. Thus have you this French verb complete before you. You will observe, that I have, & through taken no notice of *genders*; but you will conclude, of course, that as whether it be *he*, *she*, or *it*, the verb is the same in English, so it is in French, whether it be *il* or *elle*. I have therefore thought it unnecessary to put the *she* or the *it*, or the *el* in any of these tables. You will also observe, that the French phrases in the Subjunctive would, in part at least, require the *que* before them; but the object here has been to bring you acquainted merely with the *changes in the form* of the French verb. According to the rules of grammar every complete sentence begins with a CAPITAL LETTER. I have not observed this rule in the *Examples, Tables, and Conjugations*; because it would encumber the page, and, in some cases, not leave room for placing the words in a neat and clear manner.

120. This table of conjugation should be well considered by you before you go any further. You will, at first think, that all *these endings* of the French verb, or rather, all these *various forms* make a difficulty never to be overcome. But, a little time will, if you be attentive and industrious, make all this difficulty disappear. You will remark that the end of the verb consists of *er*; and that a

the changes consist of letters put in the place of, or added to, the *er*. Now, it is the *same in other verbs*. For instance, *gronder* (to scold) becomes *je gronde, je grondois, je grondai, je gronderai, je gronde, je gronderois, je grondasse*. So that, when you become perfectly well acquainted with the changes in the verb *tuer*, you will of yourself be able to make all the changes in other verbs; and you will be surprised how readily you will do this in a very short time. *Parler* (to speak) will no sooner meet your eye, than you will know that you must say, *je parle, je parlais, je parlai, je parlerai, je parle, je parlerois*, and so on.

121. This, however, would be *too easy*. Every person would learn French, if the difficulties were no greater than this. All the French verbs do not end in *er*; and those that do not, are not conjugated in this way; that is to say, they do not vary their forms in the way that the verb *tuer* varies its form. But, observe, the whole number of French verbs do not exceed *three thousand*, or thereabouts; and, of these, about *two thousand seven hundred* end in *er*; so that the rest are not very numerous. This rest, however, are, for the far greater part, reducible to *rule*. They are formed into *nine* other classes, which are called *Conjugations*, and which, together with the verbs ending in *er*, make ten conjugations in the whole. There is one class which end in *ir*, and this class contains about *a hundred and ninety-eight* verbs, all conjugated in the same way. So that, if we were to make but *two* regular Conjugations, there would remain but about *a hundred* verbs not included in these two. These hundred would, of course, have no *rule*, and would be to be learned separately. If we make *ten* Conjugations, we reduce the irregular ones to about *forty*; and I shall make *ten* Conjugations, because the verbs are so considered in *Boyer's Dictionary*, which is the dictionary in general use. You will perceive, however, that this is merely arbitrary; we make *two* or *ten*, just as we please. It is a mere classification of

the verbs, for the sake of more easily learning how to make the changes in their form.

122. Then, after we have made the *ten* classes, Conjugations, there remain about *forty* verbs, which do not come into either of those classes, and they are called *irregular verbs*. In English we call those of our verbs *regular*, which end their *past time*, and their *passive participle* in *ed*; as in the case of *to kill*, which becomes *killed*. Those which do not end their *past time* and their *passive participle* thus, we call *irregular*. For instance, *to write* is irregular; because I cannot say *writed*; but must say, *wrote*, and *written*. We have, in English, about a *hundred and forty* of these irregular verbs, but, then, we have but *one* Conjugation of regular verbs, while, in French, we make *ten*. Yet, this will be found to be a matter by no means full of difficulty. When we have gone through the principles and rules of Etymology, you will find, in Letter XIV., all these irregular verbs brought together under one head, or into one *TASK*, and also an account of the *ten* Conjugations, and a method pointed out for learning the whole. I avoid introducing this detail here, because it would too much interrupt your progress, and carry your mind too far away from what it has already been engaged in. My business here has been to show you the principles upon which the French verbs vary their form, and, for this purpose, one verb is better than many. I, therefore, leave all the details relating to the several *Conjugations*, and to the *Irregular Verbs*, to be treated of in another place, where you will find them in due time.

123. But, there are *two verbs*, into all the particulars relating to which I must go here; because there is *no other verb* that can be used in all its capacities without one of these two being used with it. These two are *avoir* (to have) and *être* (to be). These, in French, as well as in English, are called *Auxiliary Verbs*. The word *auxiliary* means *helping*, or *helper*; as an *auxiliary army* is an army

that comes to the help, or assistance, of another army. These verbs are so called because they *help* other verbs to express that which they otherwise would not express. Suppose the subject we are talking about to be *my killing* a sheep, or any thing else ; and that I want to tell you, that the act is *ended*, that I have *closed* the work ; I cannot easily, if at all, tell you this without the *help* of the verb *to have*. To say I *kill*, or *killed*, or *will kill*, a sheep : neither of these will answer my purpose. No : I must call in the *help* of the verb *to have*, and say, I *have killed* a sheep. So, in the past time, it would be, I *had killed* a sheep. It is precisely the same in French.

j'ai tué un mouton,  
j'avois tué un mouton,

I have killed a sheep,  
I had killed a sheep.

Now, observe, the verb *to have*, besides being a *helper*, is, sometimes, a verb of *itself*, a *principal* in the sentence, and signifies *possession* ; as, I *have* a sheep ; that is to say, I *possess* a sheep. It is, as a principal, a verb of great use in both languages ; and in French, I think, more than in English. The French say, sometimes, *son avoir*, meaning a person's *possessions*. That is to say, *his* or *her to have*. Odd as this sounds to us, we ourselves say, a man's *havings*, though the word is rather out of use. Instead of saying his *havings* are great, the French say, his *to have* is great. This you will by-and-by find to be a turn of the French idiom. In such cases we mostly make use of the active participle, and they of the infinitive of the verb ; as, *killing* a man is a great crime. They say, not *tuant*, but, *tuer* un homme est un grand crime. One of our *weights* is called *Avoirdupois*. This is all French, *avoir* (to have) *du* (of the) *poids* (weight) ; that is to say (because we leave out the *du*), *to have weight* ; or, in other words, *to have enough of it* ; and this is, accordingly, our *heaviest* weight. I was considering *avoir* as an *auxiliary* ; but this digression appeared necessary, in order to show you the *principle* out of which has arisen the use of this verb

along with other verbs. The idea of *Posses* always adheres to the verb *avoir* : for, when I have killed a sheep, I, in fact, say that the *mine* : I am the *owner* of the act ; I *have* it.

124. The verb *être* (to be) expresses *existe* and always carries that idea along with it. *To be ill*, *to be rich*, mean to *exist in* illness, or *in* riches. This verb must have the help of *to have* in its compound times, of which I shall speak presently ; in French, it is, along with verbs used in a certain way, employed as an auxiliary *instead of to have* which is never the case in English ; but, of this I shall have to speak fully in a few minutes.

125. Let me now lay before you these two verbs completely *conjugated*, in the same manner as you have seen *Tuer* in paragraph 118. But let me first observe, that you must look again actively at what I have, in paragraph 118, said about the *que*, which ought to be placed before the nouns in the conjugation of the *present* and of the *past perfect* of the subjunctive mode ; as : *je n'aurais pas que j'aie*. I have, as I said before, omitted the *que* for want of room in the page. Let me now, before I give you the conjugation of *avoir*, let me press upon you the necessity of becoming as soon as possible, perfectly well acquainted with this verb. You will remember, that the compound times of other verbs are formed with its help ; that even the compound of *être* cannot be formed without the help of *avoir*. It is, therefore, a verb of very great importance, and it merits your attention. Write it down, in all its forms, very carefully, and, if you have a teacher, or any one to hear you read, read it over many, many times.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Avoir, | To Have.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	j'ai,	I have,
		tu as,	thou hast,
		il a,	he has,
		nous avons,	we have,
		vous avez,	you have,
		ils ont,	they have,

Past Imperfect Time.	{	j'avois, tu avois, il avoit, nous avions, vous aviez, ils avoient.	I had, thou hadst, he had, we had, you had, they had.
		j'eus, tu eus, il eut, nous eûmes, vous eûtes, ils eurent.	I had, thou hadst, he had, we had, you had, they had.
Future Time.	{	j'aurai, tu auras, il aura, nous aurons. vous aurez, ils auront.	I shall have, thou shalt have, he shall have, we shall have, you shall have, they shall have.

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.	{	j'aie, tu aies, il ait, nous ayons, vous ayez, ils aient.	I may have, thou mayest have, he may have, we may have, you may have, they may have.
		j'aurois, tu aurois, il auroit, nous aurions, vous auriez, ils auroient.	I should have, thou shoulddest have, he should have, we should have, you should have, they should have.
Past Imperfect Time.	{	j'eusse, tu eusses, il eût, nous eussions, vous eussiez, ils eussent.	I might have, thou mightest have, he might have, we might have, you might have, they might have.

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

ais,	have,	ayons,	let us have,
qu'il ait,	let him have.	ayez,	have,
		qu'ils aient,	let them have.

## PARTICIPLES.

ayant,	having,	eu,	had.
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What was said in paragraph 119, about the *she* and *it* in English, and about the *elle* or *elles* in French, and also about using the *que* in the Subjunctive Mode applies in the case of these auxiliary verbs as well as in that of all others. Read, therefore, that paragraph again, before you go on any further. Having well considered all about the verb *avoir*; having marked well all its changes of form, you

next come to the verb *être*. But, just observe there are two ways of spelling, *aie* and *aies*. write *aye*, *ayes*, instead of the former. It is the consequence which spelling we make use of. The same you will see taking place in *ÊTRE*. write, in a part of that verb, *soient*, and *soyent*. I mention it, lest it should be a stumbling block to you; but, it is, otherwise, a matter of no consequence. The verb *AVOIR* ought to be, in its parts, at your fingers' ends, before you proceed further. You ought to write it many times over, and, if you have a teacher, or any one to read it will be good to read it with its pronouns many times over. The best way is, to become very familiar with it before you go to *ÊTRE*, so that they do not get confounded in your mind. You have been told that the *compound times* of verbs are formed by the help of *AVOIR*; but, you will, by-and-by find that some verbs take *ÊTRE* to help in the formation of their compound times. The French say, *je tombé*, I *am fallen*; and not *j'ai tombé*, I *have fallen*. You will soon see something about *reflected times* and then you will see how frequent and how necessary the use of this verb *être*, and how necessary that you should have a perfect knowledge of it as soon as possible.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Être | To Be

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je suis,	I am,
		tu es,	thou art,
	{	il est,	he is,
		nous sommes,	we are,
	{	vous êtes,	you are,
		ils sont.	they are.
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	j'étois,	I was,
		tue tois,	thou wast,
	{	il étoit,	he was,
		nous étions,	we were,
	{	vous étiez,	you were,
		ils étoient.	they were.
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je fus,	I was,
		tu fus,	thou wast,
	{	il fut,	he was,
		nous fûmes,	we were,
	{	vous fûtes,	you were,
		ils furent.	they were.

Future Time.	{	je serai,	I shall be,
		tu seras,	thou shalt be,
		il sera,	he shall be,
		nous serons,	we shall be,
		vous serez,	you shall be,
		ils seront.	they shall be.

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.	{	je sois,	I may be,
		tu sois,	thou mayest be,
		il soit,	he may be,
		nous soyons,	we may be,
		vous soyez,	you may be,
		ils soient.	they may be.
Past Imperfect Time.	{	je serois,	I should be,
		tu serois,	thou shoulddest be,
		il seroit,	he should be,
		nous serions,	we should be,
		vous seriez,	you should be,
		ils seroient.	they should be.
Past Perfect Time.	{	je fusse,	I might be,
		tu fusses,	thou mightest be,
		il fut,	he might be,
		nous fussions,	we might be,
		vous fussiez,	you might be,
		ils fussent.	they might be.

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

sois,	be,	soyons,	let us be,
qu'il soit,	let him be.	soyez,	be,
		qu'ils soient,	let them be.

## PARTICIPLES.

étant,	being.	été,	been.
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126. Here, then, you have these two important verbs in all their various forms. Great indeed is the change from *être* to *fussions*; but, it is still the *same word*. Our *to be* becomes *was* and *were*; but yet these are still the *same word*, only under different forms; and, as we know very well when to use one of these forms, and when the other, so you will, in a short time, with due diligence, know when you are to use one of the French forms and when the other.

127. I have now to call your attention to the *Compound Times* of Verbs, and to verbs when they are called *Reflected*; because it is here that you will see the use of AVOIR and ETRE as *auxiliaries*. The *compound times* are so called because they are expressed by *two verbs* instead of one; as *I have killed*; *I had killed*; and so on. But, in fact, there is



nothing more in this, than that the verb *to have* is put before the *passive participle* of the *principal* verb: so that these compound times, as they are called, are nothing more than the simple times of the verb *to have*, going before the passive participle of some other verb; thus:

j'aie tué un mouton,	I have killed a sheep,
j'avois tué un mouton,	I had killed a sheep,
j'eus tué un mouton,	I had killed a sheep,
j'aurai tué un mouton,	I shall have killed a sheep,
j'aie tué un mouton,	I may have killed a sheep,
j'aurois tué un mouton,	I should have killed a sheep,
j'eusse tué un mouton,	I might have killed a sheep.

You see, it is always *tué*; that is to say, the *passive participle* of the verb *tuer*. The change is only in the *auxiliary*; and this is all that need be said about the *compound times*, except that we have now to notice how the *Reflected* verbs are used, and how the auxiliaries are employed in relation to them.

128. A *Reflected Verb* is one which expresses an action that is *confined to the actor*; and, in this respect, the two languages differ materially. But, before I say more of this matter, I must speak of verbs as *active* and *neuter*. A verb is called *active* when it expresses an action of one person or thing which *passes* to another person or thing; as: the hawk kills the sparrow. A verb is called *neuter*, either when there is *no action*; as, the hawk *moults* (or lets fall out its feathers), or when there is an action which does *not pass to any object*; as: the hawk *flutters*. It is the same in French; that is to say, the first of these verbs is *active* in French, and the two last *neuter*, in one language as well as in the other; and the translation into French would stand thus:

le faucon tue le moineau,	the hawk kills the sparrow,
le faucon mue,	the hawk moults,
le faucon vole,te,	the hawk flutters.

Thus, you see, in the first instance, there is an *action*, and it *passes* from the hawk to the sparrow. In the second, there is *no action* on the part of the

hawk; for his feathers merely come out without his doing any thing. In the third there is *an action*, and of the hawk himself too; but it does *not pass to any thing else*. This distinction, therefore, between active and neuter verbs is very clear; and it is of some importance, because the use of other words in the sentence must depend, sometimes, on whether the verb be *active* or *neuter*. But, mind, there is no change in the form of the verb to express the active, or the neutral, character of it.

129. Thus far, there is, as to this matter, no difference in the two languages; but, many of the verbs, which are merely *neuter* in English, are *reflected* in French; and, if reflected, they must be used with a *double pronoun*, or with a noun *and* a pronoun; whereas, if not reflected, they are used in the usual way. Thus, the hawk *perches* on the tree. Here we, in English, have the verb used in the common way, just as the hawk *kills*, the hawk *moults*, the hawk *flutters*. But, this *to perch*, being a *reflected* verb, it must have, in the French, the pronoun as well as the noun; thus: le faucon *se perche* sur l'arbre; or, if the pronoun be used instead of *hawk*, it must be *il se perche* sur l'arbre; that is to say, word for word, *he himself* perches upon the tree. We *may*, in English, say, he perches *himself* upon the tree; but this we do not frequently do. There are some few cases in English where it is *necessary* for us to use the *self*; as, I *hurt myself*; but, in French, there are great numbers of verbs that *must* be thus used; and, in the Dictionary, you will find them with *se* always before them; thus, *Se Percher*, To Perch. Any *active* verb may be, and, indeed, must be, used in the same way as a reflected verb, if the action be *done to the actor*. Thus, *to kill* may be used in this manner; as the hawk *kills himself*: le faucon *se tue*. When we use the *myself*, *thysself*, *himself*, and so on, the French verb is sure to be reflected; but, it is reflected, in many cases, where we do not use the *self*.

130. Having explained the reasons upon which

this distinction is founded, let us now see how a reflected verb is *conjugated*; how it is used with the double pronoun; and let us, for this purpose, take the verb *to perch*.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Se Percher, | To Perch.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.	{	je me perche,	I perch,
		tu te perches,	thou perchest,
		il se perche,	he perches,
		nous nous perchons,	we perch,
		vous vous perches,	you perch,
		ils se perchent,	they perch.

We need not carry the conjugation any farther, because the verb goes on changing its form, just like *tuer* in paragraph 118; and the only difference is, that here there are *two pronouns*, while in the case of the active verb *tuer*, there was only one. But, if *tuer*, or any other active verb, express an action *done to*, or *confined to*, the actor; then it must be treated as a reflected verb. So that, if I am talking of persons *killing themselves*, I must say,

je me tue,	nous nous tuons,
tu te tues,	vous vous tuez,
il se tue,	ils se tuent;

and so on throughout the whole of the verb. In paragraph 99, you have seen *Se* placed amongst the *Indeterminate Pronouns*. It is *indeterminate* because it points out neither *gender* nor *number*. It means *self* or *selves*; and it is applicable to the third person of both numbers and both genders; for, whether we be speaking of males or females, of one, or more, the *se* never changes its form: thus, *il se perche*, he perches; *elle se perche*, she perches; *ils se perchent*, they perch; *elles se perchent*, they perch. The above phrases, word for word, would stand in English thus:

je me tue,	I me kill,
tu te tues,	thou thee kill,
il se tue,	he himself kills,
nous nous tuons,	we us kill,
vous vous tuez,	you you kill,
ils se tuent,	they themselves kill,

This sounds *strange* to us English, but not *stranger* than our mode of expression does to the French. *I kill myself*, is just as strange to them. You will ask, perhaps, how it is, that *nous nous* is translated by *we us*. It is because *nous* sometimes means *we*, and sometimes *us*. And, if you think, that it will be difficult to know when it means the one and when the other, pray observe, that we are situated in the same manner with regard to our *you*. You will know when it has the one meaning and when the other by its connexion with the other words of the sentence.

131. Let me add here, that when there is a *Noun* used with these reflected verbs, all the difference is, that the first pronoun is left out ; as,

le faucon se perche,	the hawk perches,
les faucons se perchent,	the hawks perch.

132. Very well, then : all this is, I think, plain enough. But, there is another material thing belonging to the reflected verb ; namely, the *compound times*. I spoke of these times in paragraph 127, and showed you, that they were nothing more than the several parts of the verb *Avoir* (to have) used with the *passive participle* of another verb. Read that paragraph again. But, now mind, when it is a *reflected* verb, that you are using, or any verb in the reflected form ; when either of these is the case it is not the verb *avoir*, but the verb *être* (to be) that you are to use as the auxiliary, strange as this rule may at first sound to your ears. In paragraph 127 I have given you a table, in the way of specimen, of the conjugation of the verb *tuer* with *Avoir*. *Tuer* is, in that paragraph, an *active verb*. I will now take it as a reflected verb also, and show you how it is conjugated with *être* as well as with *avoir*.

j' ai tué un mouton,	I have killed a sheep,
je me suis tué,	I have killed myself.
j' avois tué un mouton,	I had killed a sheep,
je m' étois tué,	I had killed myself.
j' eus tué un mouton,	I had killed a sheep,
je me fus tué,	I had killed myself.
j' aurai tué un mouton,	I shall have killed a sheep,

je me serai tué,	I shall have killed myself.
j' aie tué un mouton,	I may have killed a sheep,
je me sois tué,	I may have killed myself.
j' aurois tué un mouton,	I should have killed a sheep,
je me serois tué,	I should have killed myself.
j' eusse tué un mouton,	I might have killed a sheep,
je me fusse tué,	I might have killed myself.

Thus, you see, all through, it is the verb *être*, instead of the verb *avoir*, with which the verb *tuer* is used in the reflected sense. I have taken here only the first person singular, which is all that is necessary, because the other persons go on in the same way; as, nous *avons* tué un mouton : nous nous *sommes* tués; and so on. But in the *Imperative Mode* there is a further change; thus:

tue un mouton,	kill a sheep,
tue-toi,	kill thyself.
qu'il tue un mouton,	let him kill a sheep,
qu' il se tue,	let him kill himself.
tuons un mouton,	let-us kill a sheep,
tuons-nous,	let us kill ourselves.
tuez un mouton,	kill a sheep,
tuez-vous,	kill yourself, or selves.
qu' ils tuent un mouton,	let them kill a sheep,
qu' ils se tuent,	let them kill themselves.

The INFINITIVE is *S'être tué*: the ACTIVE PARTICIPLE, *S'étant tué*.

I will give you some of the above phrases *word for word* as nearly as possible; and, strange as they appear at first, you will, at last, find them natural enough. As far as the verb *avoir* goes we think all natural; but, when we come to the verb *être*, we think all out of place.

Je me suis tué,	I me am killed,
je m' étois tué,	I me was killed,
je me serois tué,	I me should be killed,
tue-toi,	kill thou thee,
qu' il se tue,	that he himself kill,
tuons-nous,	kill we us,
tuez-vous,	kill you you.

This appears monstrous; but, consider it well, and you will find, that the *me* in the French means, in this case, *myself* as the doer of the deed; and that the fair and full meaning, in English, is, *I, of myself*,

or by my own act, *am killed*, *was killed*, shall be killed, and so on. Then, as *tue*, in the imperative, means, *kill thou*, *tue-toi* is *kill thou thee*, which is no more than *kill thyself*. And, if we find it a *fault* in the French language, that it requires *kill we us*, instead of, let *us kill ourselves*, the French will tell us that the fault is in *our* mode of expression, and not in theirs. *Je me suis tué* is, in good English, *I have killed myself*. Word for word, this would be, in French, *j' ai tué moimême*; but this would be bad French: or rather, it would be no French at all, any more than *I me am killed*, is English.

133. I have before observed, that the Reflected Verbs are denoted, in the Dictionary, by *Se* being put before them. I have also observed, that any *active* verb, expressing an action done to the actor, or confined to the actor, may, as in the case of *tuer*, become a reflected verb. But, besides these, there are several *neuter* verbs, which must be conjugated with *être*, and not with *Avoir*; though this is not the case with *neuter* verbs in *general*. Let us take our *hawk* again in the way of illustration. *Tuer* is an *active* verb as we will here use it. *Se Percher* (to perch) is a *reflected* verb. But *Jucher* (to roost) is a *neuter* verb. Now, then, speaking of a hawk, we say,

il a tué un moineau,	he <i>has</i> killed a sparrow,
il s' est perché sur l' arbre,	
il a juché sur l' arbre,	
	he <i>has</i> perched on the tree,
	he <i>has</i> roosted on the tree.

The distinction here, though very *nice*, is very clear, and must, if you attend to it, explain the whole matter of reflected verbs. To *perch* on a tree includes an *act* which the hawk does with regard to himself; but, the *roosting* is totally void of all action. It is an inactive, a *neutral* state of being; and, therefore, the verb which describes that state, is called a *neuter verb*, and is, in its compound times, conjugated with *avoir*, and not with *être*.

134. There are, however, some few *neuter* verbs, which are conjugated with *être* and not with *avoir*; but, you will find a list of these when you come to

the Syntax on the Times of verbs. *Sortir* (to go out) is, for instance, one of these neuter verbs; as: *je suis sorti*, I have gone out; and not *j'ai sorti*, I have gone out. However, I put off, for the present, this list and the details on the subject, in order to avoid as much as possible giving interruption to this series of principles and rules, which ought to have a constant connection in your mind as you proceed.

135. There is one thing more belonging to reflected verbs; and that is, they have sometimes *entre* used with them. *Entre* means, literally, *between*, or *amongst*; as, *entre nous* (between ourselves) when there are *two* of us only. Where there are more, we say, in English, *amongst ourselves*; but the French say, *entre vous*, whether there be two or more than two. This *entre* is a preposition which generally means *between* or *amongst*: *entre deux*, between two; *entre trois*, amongst three. Now, this preposition is used frequently with reflected verbs; and to make, in some sort, a part of the verbs themselves; as, *S'entre tuer*, to kill one another. This is when there are two parties acting, and acting with reciprocity, *on each other*. In speaking of two men, we say, *ils s'entre-tuent*, they kill one another. When *entre* is thus used, it makes no difference at all in the manner of conjugating the verb. The *entre* is prefixed to the verb, and that is all; as:

nous nous entre-tuons,	we kill one another,
nous nous entre-tuions,	we killed one another,
ils s'entre-tuent,	they kill one another,
ils s'entre-tuoient.	they killed one another.

Then in the compound times, where we make use of *to have*, they make use of *to be*; as:

nous nous sommes entre-tués,	we have killed one another,
nous nous étions entre-tués,	we had killed one another,
ils se sont entre-tués,	they have killed one another,
ils s'étoient entre-tués.	they had killed one another.

And in this way goes on the conjugation of any and every verb with *entre*. Sometimes, the same thing is expressed in another way: as *ils se tuent l'un*

*l'autre*. This also means, *they kill one another*; and, it would seem to be tautology; for, it says, *ils se tuent*, which is *they kill themselves*; and then comes *l'un l'autre*, which means *one another*; so that they kill *themselves* and *one another also*, which would seem to be a little more than is possible. However, this sort of phrase is in *common use*, and that is enough for us. Though it may be bad philosophy, it is perfectly *good French*; and that is what we have to look after.

136. There remains now, with regard to the *Etymology of Verbs*, nothing to be done but to notice a particular manner of using certain verbs only in the third person singular. When used in this manner, they are called, by some grammarians, *impersonal verbs*; because they are here used only in the *third person singular*. AVOIR, ETRE, and some other verbs, are used in this way, and, for want of one more appropriate, we may as well use the appellation, *impersonal*; for an appellation of some sort they must have.

137. *Avoir* is the principal one of these impersonals, and, in this its capacity, it is always used with *il y*; which, thus ~~used~~, mean, in English, *it there*. Let us, then, see how this impersonal is used. *Il y a un faucon sur l'arbre*. You know, that *a* means *has*. So that, word for word, this phrase is, *it there has* a hawk on the tree; though we say, *there is* a hawk on the tree. If you ask, what business the *il* (it) has there, the French might ask you what business the *it* has in our, *it rains*, *it snows*, *it freezes*. And, if you think it a sort of nonsense to say, *il y a un faucon sur l'arbre*, I assure you that the French would think you downright mad if you were to say, *y est un faucon sur l'arbre*. The verb *avoir*, when used in this way, ought, indeed, to be called *y avoir*; for that little word really makes a part of it, and with it the verb is conjugated, precisely as in paragraph 125, only it is confined to the third person singular; as;



il y a un faucon,  
 il y avoit un faucon,  
 il y eut un faucon,  
 il y aura un faucon,  
 il y ait un faucon,  
 il y auroit un faucon,  
 il y eût un faucon,  
 y ayant un faucon.

there is a hawk,  
 there was a hawk,  
 there was a hawk,  
 there shall be a hawk,  
 there may be a hawk,  
 there should be a hawk,  
 there might be a hawk,  
 there being a hawk.

It goes through the compound times also: as *il y a eu* un faucon; *there has been* a hawk; and so on.

138. *ETRE* is called *impersonal*, when it is used thus: *il est* rare de voir un faucon dans la ville; *it is* rare to see a hawk in the town. This is according to our own manner; and, therefore, we need not bestow any more time upon it here. Sometimes the pronoun *ce* is used, in such cases, instead of *il*; as, *c'est* rare; but, we need say no more of that at present; because, when we come to the Syntax of Impersonals, which we shall in Letter XXI., we shall have a great deal to say about *il est*, *c'est*.

139. But, there is the impersonal *Falloir* (to be necessary), which is a verb of very great importance. It, in most cases, performs the office of our word *must*; but, it does *more* than that in some cases. The uses of this word constitute one of the great characteristics of the French idiom, viewed in comparison with our idiom. The infinitive *Falloir* (to be necessary) is out of use. It is never used. The *active* participle is also out of use; but it has its passive participle in use. With these exceptions it is a verb that goes through all the *Modes* and *Times* in the third person singular, as:

il faut,  
 il falloit,  
 il fallut,  
 il faudra  
 il faille,  
 il faudroit,  
 il fallût,  
 il a fallu.

it is necessary,  
 it was necessary,  
 it was necessary,  
 it will be necessary,  
 it may be necessary,  
 it should be necessary,  
 it might be necessary,  
 it has been necessary.

This is the *word for word* translation. We might use *requisite*, *needful*, or any other word or words expressive of what *ought* to take place. Our *should*

frequently answers the purpose. But *must* is our great word in these cases; and here the turn of the two languages is wholly different. This difference requires the greatest attention; but this will be fully explained in the *Syntax*, my business here being to show how the French verbs change their forms, and to explain to you the reasons for those changes. Let me, however, just give you an example or two with *must*, and let us adhere to our verb *Tuer*.

il faut que je tue aujourd'hui,	I must kill to-day,
il falloit que je tuasse hier,	I must kill yesterday,
il faudra que je tue demain.	I must kill to-morrow.

We, in some cases, say very properly, I *must* kill yesterday, or not at all. So that here we have *must* all through. We do, indeed, say, I *was obliged* to kill yesterday; or, I *was compelled*, or *forced*; but we can say *must* in this case as well as in the present and the future. These three French phrases, literally translated, are as follows:

il faut que je tue aujourd'hui,	it is necessary that I may kill to-day.
il falloit que je tuasse hier,	it was necessary that I might kill yesterday.
il faudra que je tue demain,	it is necessary that I may kill to-morrow.

So that, you see, there is no single *word* in French that answers to our *must*. The same meaning is expressed, but it is expressed in another manner. You will observe, that this verb, *il faut*, forms its compound times like another verb; as, *il a fallu*; it *has been* necessary.

140. There are several other verbs which, for the reason before mentioned, are usually called *impersonal*; such as *pleuvoir* (to rain), *geler* (to freeze), *tonner* (to thunder). But there is no difficulty belonging to these; for, the French say, *il gele*, *il tonne*, just as we say, it *freezes*, it *thunders*. As to *rain*, indeed, they generally say, *il tombe de la pluie*, it falls of the rain, or, in good English, *rain is falling*. But these are matters that properly belong to the *Syntax*. *Il fait*, which means, it *makes*, is one

of the impersonals; but, it is also part of the verb *faire* (to make), and will be found fully conjugated in its proper place. As impersonal, however, it goes through all the *Modes* and *Times*; and, it is in such common use, and this use is so strongly characteristic of the difference between the two languages, that I must give you an example here. Speaking of the weather, the French say,

il fait beau,	it makes fine,
il fesoit beau,	it made fine,
il fit beau,	it made fine,
il fera beau.	it will make fine.

We, in English, do not say, *makes, made, and will make*; we say, *is, was, will be*. But, we are not to find *fault* with the French on this account. If examined closely, their mode of expression is just as reasonable as ours. At any rate, they do and will say, *il fait beau*; and, it is for us to learn to say it too.

141. Thus I put an end to my letter on the *Etymology of Verbs*. It is full of matter requiring great attention. You will have observed, that its principal object is, to teach you how to make the several *changes in the forms* of the verbs, according to the several circumstances of *person, number, time and mode*. You will, by-and-by, when I have gone through the *Etymology of the Adverbs, Prepositions and Conjunctions*, find the *Conjugations* of the verbs at full length and with all the details. But, before you proceed even to the *Etymology of Adverbs*, I wish you to become very perfect in your knowledge of the contents of this letter. Write the verb *Tuer* down, in all its *Modes, Times, Numbers, and Persons*, till it becomes as familiar to you as your fingers are. Do the same with regard to the verbs *AVOIR* and *ETRE*; for, one or the other of them appears in almost every sentence that you see in any book. To fix a thing in your memory, there is nothing like *making it with your hand*. A perfect familiarity with *Tuer* will make you master of the changes belonging to about *eight-ninths* of *the whole* of the French verbs; and a similar fa-

miliarity with *avoir* and *être* will go far towards removing every difficulty with regard to the verbs. Let me, therefore, beg of you to secure this important point before you proceed any further.

## LETTER X.

### ETYMOLOGY OF ADVERBS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

142. In paragraph 37, I explained to you why the words belonging to this part of speech are called *Adverbs*. You will, of course, now read that paragraph again. Having read it, you will want nothing more to inform you of the *nature* and *use* of the words of this part of Speech.

143. Adverbs undergo *no changes of form*, like the parts of speech which we have heretofore had to do with. Therefore this sort of words will not detain us long. The main part of our English Adverbs end in *LY*; as, *happily*, *shortly*. They are formed, in most cases, from adjectives, as in these two instances, from *happy* and *short*. It is nearly the same in the French, except that, instead of *ly*, they add *ment*; as *heureusement* (happily), *courtement* (shortly); from *heureuse* (happy), and *courte* (short.)

144. The Syntax will teach us how to place and employ Adverbs in sentences: here we have only to ascertain how the Adverbs themselves are formed, and what connexion they have with other words. And, as to this matter, there are a few observations to make:

FIRST. The general rule is, to add *ment* to the adjective to make it an adverb; as, *brave*, *bravement*; but, if the adjective end in *é* (with an accent, mind), or in *i* or *u*, it is to the *masculine* of the adjective that the *ment* is added. Adjectives ending in *e* mute are, as you have before seen, for both genders; and the *ment* is merely added to them to form the adverb.

When the adjective ends in a *consonant*, the adverb is formed by adding *ment* to the *feminine* of it. The following five words will suffice in the way of example. I shall give the English of the Adverb only.

ADJECTIVES.		ADVERBS.	
Masc.	Fem.		
Aisé,	aisée,	aisément,	easily,
joli,	jolie,	joliment,	prettily,
goulu,	goulue,	goulument,	gluttonously,
vite,	vite,	vitement,	quickly,
dur,	dure,	durement,	hardly.

This taking the feminine, and not the masculine, of the adjective, whereon to form the adverb, is particularly to be observed in those cases where the masculine differs widely in form from the feminine as *franc*, *franche*; *doux*, *douce*; *heureux*, *heureuse* for, here it must be, not *francment*, but, *franchement* *doucement*, *heureusement*. To the above rule there are, however, a few exceptions. The following adjectives, though ending with a *consonant* or with *u* take an *é* or an *û* before the *ment*.

ADJECTIVES.	ADVERBS.	
Exprès,	expressément,	expressly,
confus,	confusément,	confusedly,
précis,	précisément,	precisely,
commun,	communément,	commonly,
importun,	importunément,	importunately,
obscur,	obscurément,	obscurely,
profond,	profondément,	deeply,
gentil,	gentiment,	genteelly,
épèrdu,	éperdûment,	desperately,
ingénu,	ingénûment,	ingenuously,
dû,	dûment,	duly,
assidu,	assidûment,	assiduously.

A further exception is, that the following adjectives, though ending in *e* mute, do not, like *vite* which becomes *vitement*, keep the *e* mute in forming the adverb; but change the *e* mute into an *é* acute

ADJECTIVES.	ADVERBS.	
Aveugle,	aveuglément,	blindly,
commode,	commodément,	commodiously,
conforme,	conformément,	conformably,
énorme,	énormément,	enormously.

The words *derived* from any of these, follow the same rule, *incommodément*, which is derived from *incommode*, and that from *commode*.—For *unpunished*, or, *with impunity*, the French have *impunément*, though the adjective is, *impuni*.

SECOND. When the adjectives end in *ant* and *ent*, they form the adverbs by changing the *ant* into *amment* and the *ent* into *emment*; as, *independent*, (independent), *indépendamment* (independently), *prudent* (prudent), *prudemment* (prudently). To this rule there are two exceptions. *Lent* (slow) makes *lentement*, and *présent* (present) makes *présentement*.

145. As to the other adverbs, I mean such as are not derived from, or made out of adjectives, they are words of themselves, and, like other words, are to be sought for in the Dictionary. There are, perhaps, a hundred of them. For inserting a list of them here there can be no reason which would not be a reason for inserting the whole of the nouns and adjectives and of all the other parts of speech. We ought to do nothing without a reason, and to swell the bulk of a book, less, perhaps, than almost any other thing. An adverb is a word that *never changes its form* on account of person, number, gender, time, or any other circumstance. It is always composed of the same letters; and, therefore, there need not be much time employed upon explanations relative to this Part of Speech. The French adverbs differ widely from ours; they are used in a manner very different from that in which ours are used; but, they cannot all be put into the head at once: they and their several uses must be learned by translating, by writing, by speaking, by reading them in books, as they occur, and not by attempting to know them all at once by arranging them and reading them in lists.

146. There are Adverbs of *time*, *place*, *order*, *quality*, and of *manner*; but, any classification of them would be useless, because they undergo no changes. There are Nouns of *time*, *place*, *order*,

and the rest ; but we do not class them as *such*, because they undergo *no changes* to suit these various circumstances. The *negatives* are of this part of speech ; and the use of them is a great matter ; but, they never change their form ; they cannot be used without other words ; and, in fact, all relating to them is to be learned, when we come to employ them in sentences. The manner of using *negatives* is a great matter, and it will be treated of in a separate Letter. A whole Letter (XX.) will be devoted to *negative* and *interrogative* sentences.

147. The French, like the English, have two or three Adverbs that may be said to have *degrees of comparison*. We have, in English, *well*, which becomes *better*, and *best*. The French have *bien* (well), *mieux* (better), *le mieux* (the best). They have also *mal* (badly), *pis* (worse), *le pis* (the worst). They have *peu* (little or few), *moins* (less), *le moins* (the least). We have *often*, which becomes *oftener*, and *oftenest*. But they say, *souvent*, *plus souvent*, *le plus souvent*. These irregularities are, however, very few in number ; and, as they are confined to words which frequently occur in almost every page of every book, and in every conversation of any considerable length, they very soon cease to present any thing like a difficulty to the learner.

148. It may be necessary to observe here, that an adverb sometimes consists of *more than one word*. It is then called a *compound* adverb. We have the same thing in English ; but it may be useful to explain the matter. *Lately*, for instance, is a *simple* adverb ; but *little-by-little*, is a compound. In French it is much about the same. For *lately*, they have *dernièrement*, and for *little-by-little* they have *petit-à-petit* ; that is to say, word for word, *little-to-little* ; which, odd as it sounds, has a sense in it more evident than is the sense in our adverb. Sometimes, however, the French adverb is a compound when ours is not : as, *tout-à-coup*, which means *suddenly*, and, word for word, *all-at-a-stroke*, or at a *hit*. And, indeed, we sometimes say, *all-of-a-sudden*, instead

of *suddenly*. Sometimes ours is a compound, when the French is not : as, *now-a-days*, which they express by *aujourd'hui*. Thus, you see, there are, in many cases, several words that go to the making up of one adverb. In our *now-a-days*, for instance, there is the Adverb, *now* ; then there is the *a* (meaning in this case *at*) ; then there is the Noun, *days*. You will bear this in mind. Though there are *several words*, and of different parts of speech too, they make but *one adverb*.

149. Sometimes, both in French and in English, the words that are used to make a compound adverb are connected by a *hyphen* or *hyphens* : as, *now-a-days* and *tout-à-l'heure*. But, this is not always the case. For instance, *avec le temps*, and *in time*, which latter expresses the meaning of the former, are compound adverbs, and yet we do not connect by hyphens the words that compose them. *In the mean while* is really no more than a compound adverb, and yet we do not use the hyphens in writing it. This adverb is translated into French by the single word *pendant*. And it is, if we look into the matter, curious to observe, how fully this *one word* contains the meaning of our *four words*. It is *ce* and *pendant* ; that is to say, *this* and *during* ; that is to say, *during this* ; that is to say, *in the mean or middle, while, or time*.

150. There are some *Adjectives* which are used as *Adverbs* ; and this is the case in both languages : As, *parler bas*, to speak *low*. That is to say, in a *low voice*. This, is not frequently the case ; and, perhaps, we use this way of speaking, when we ought not. We often use the word *bad*, when we ought to use *badly*. The French say *voir double* (to *see double*), and so do we ; but, strictly speaking, this *double* is not an adverb so much as it is an *adjective* and a *noun* ; for it means *double things*. However, there are not many words used in this way ; and you will soon become acquainted with them all.

151. The *proper placing* of the Adverb is an important matter ; but, this will be fully treated of,



when we come to the *Syntax of this part of speech*. I cannot, however, conclude this Letter, without observing to you, that words which, in some cases, are adverbs, are, in other cases, not adverbs. For instance, *the inside*, when thus written is a noun, though *inside* is, in some cases, an adverb. The same with the French, who say, *le dedans* (the inside), *le dehors* (the outside), and so on, as we do. This circumstance was noticed in paragraphs 42 and 43, which you ought to look at again.

## LETTER XI.

### ETYMOLOGY OF PREPOSITIONS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

152. In paragraph 38, I explained to you why words of this sort were called *prepositions*. The chief use of the words of this part of speech is, to express the different *relations* and *connexions* which Nouns have with each other, or, in which Nouns stand with regard to each other: the hawk sits *upon* the tree, the hawk flies *to* the tree, the hawk flies down *from* the tree, the hawk flies *under* the tree.

153. Prepositions *never change their form*, so that there are none of those difficulties attending them which we find in the Articles, Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs, which change their forms so many times. For instance, *sur* (upon) is always *sur*, whether it be before a noun masculine or a noun feminine, or before a singular or a plural. Let me here, however, make a remark or two with regard to *à* and *de*. The first of these answers our *to*, and the last to our *of*. Each has different meanings under different circumstances; but, generally speaking, our *to* and *of* are translated by the same words: as: I send ten *of* my sheep *to* the field. J'envoie dix *de* mes moutons *à* la ferme. But, I leave here to call your recollection to what was said in

paragraphs 79 to 86, and to beg of you to read, *before you go any further*, the whole of those eight paragraphs carefully through. You will, doubtless, have done this already; but, you must now do it again.

154. Here you see, then, that *à* and *de* are, in French, sometimes *united* with the *definite article*. This, however, is the case with regard to no other of the prepositions. To be sure, the article, thus united with these prepositions is a thing of most extensive use in the language. Scarcely a sentence can you write without using it in some one or other of its forms; but, this is, in fact, an advantage in the learning of its use. The *de* becomes *d'* when it is immediately followed by a word beginning with a *vowel* or with an *h* mute; but this is, in fact, no *change in the form* of the word. It is merely an abbreviation, made for the purpose of obtaining fulness of sound.

155. In this part of speech as well as in the Adverbs there are sometimes more *than one word*; that is to say, one preposition contains more than one word: as, *vis-à-vis*, which, in English, is *over-against*. But, sometimes, the Preposition, like the Adverb, is simple in one of the languages and compound in the other. For instance: *par dessous* (under); *selon* (according to). The same word is, as was before observed, sometimes of one part of speech and sometimes of another; and this is very frequently the case with these parts of speech, which have no *variation in the forms* of the words. But, this is a matter of little consequence; you will soon learn to distinguish one part of speech from the other. I hope, indeed, that you have nearly done this already.

156. One of the chief things belonging to Prepositions is that which is called their *governing*. They are said to *govern* nouns and pronouns; that is to say, to cause them to be in the *objective case*. You must now look back to paragraphs 72 to 76. Then go to paragraph 91. Read these all carefully over again now; and, when you have done that you will

find, that the Prepositions *govern*, in certain cases the nouns and pronouns.

157. The main thing of all, however, to be observed on, under this head, is the *different application* of the prepositions in the two languages. *To*, as we have seen, is generally expressed in French by *à*. But, when this *à* is used with the verb *to think* (*penser*), for instance, it is not expressed in English by *to*. For example, the French say, *je pense à ma santé*; that is to say, word for word, I think *to* my health. But we say, I think *of* my health. Now, if you reflect a little here, you will find, that this French phrase is by no means unreasonable; for, it is, in its fulness, this: I apply my thinking *to* my health. And our English phrase means, I think, or use my thinking faculties about things, *concerning* my health, or *of*, or *belonging to* my health. The *meaning*, when you come to examine the thing well, is the same; the mode of expression only is different; but this difference must be very carefully attended to; for, though, I think *of* my health is good English, *je pense de ma santé* is not French at all, any more than I think *to* my health is English.

158. It is the same with regard to the use of many other Prepositions. For example, we say, I play *on* the flute; but the French say, *je joue de la flûte*; that is to say, I play *of* the flute. We say, *to enjoy a thing*: the French say, *jouir d'une chose*; that is, to enjoy *of* a thing. We say, *near a thing*, or *near to*: they say, *près d' une chose*; that is, *near of* a thing. *Près de la ville*: *near to* the town. *Près de dix mois*; *nearly*, or *near to*, ten months. *Near of ten months* seems to be nonsense; but, it is not; it means *near to* the number *of* ten months; or, *near to* the quantity *of* time that makes up ten months. The meaning, when you come closely to examine into the matter, is the same in both languages: the *manner* of expressing that meaning is very different; and this difference must be strictly attended to.

159. In this respect the *Preposition* is, in the

learning of French, an important part of speech ; because, though it never changes its form it is used in a manner so very different, in many cases, from that in which it is used in English. The Syntax will show more fully this difference, which, as I have just said, is a very important matter.

160. Prepositions are not, like Nouns, Adjectives, Verbs, and Adverbs, a very *numerous* class of words. I shall, therefore, give a *list* of the greater part of them here, divided into two parts. There are some of the Prepositions which are directly followed by the Noun or Pronoun ; and others which must have the preposition *de* before the next Noun or Pronoun. I shall divide them according to this difference in the manner of using them. I shall also give the English of each phrase. Observe, that the French *de* answers to our *from* as well as *of*. Observe also, that, when I say, that the following prepositions are *immediately* followed by the noun or pronoun that they govern, I do not mean to shut out the *Article*, for it, in fact, makes a part of the noun. Nor do I mean to exclude the possessive pronoun. Il est *à* la foire ; il est *DANS* sa chambre. You must never forget, that the same assemblage of letters may, in some cases, be a *preposition*, and, at other times, may not be a preposition. Indeed, this has been pointed out to you so many times, that the doing of it here may seem to be useless ; but, it is a thing that you cannot be too well acquainted with.

*List of Prepositions, which are immediately followed by the Noun or Pronoun to which they apply.*

<i>à</i> ,	-	-	-	-	at or to.
<i>après</i> ,	-	-	-	-	after.
<i>à travers</i> ,	-	-	-	-	through.
<i>attendu</i> ,	-	-	-	-	considering, on account of.
<i>avant</i> ,	-	-	-	-	before.
<i>avec</i> ,	-	-	-	-	with.
<i>chez</i> ,	-	-	-	-	at or to.
<i>comme</i> ,	-	-	-	-	like.
<i>concernant</i> ,	-	-	-	-	about.
<i>contre</i> ,	-	-	-	-	against.
<i>dans</i> ,	-	-	-	-	in.

de,	-	-	-	-	of or from.
de dessus,	-	-	-	-	from above.
de dessous,	-	-	-	-	from under.
de puis,	-	-	-	-	since.
derrière,	-	-	-	-	behind.
dès,	-	-	-	-	from.
devant,	-	-	-	-	before.
durant,	-	-	-	-	during.
en,	-	-	-	-	in.
entre,	-	-	-	-	between.
envers,	-	-	-	-	to or towards.
environ,	-	-	-	-	about.
excepté,	-	-	-	-	except.
hormis,	-	-	-	-	excepting.
hors,	-	-	-	-	but, or except.
malgre,	-	-	-	-	in spite of.
moyennant,	-	-	-	-	for, by means of.
nonobstant,	-	-	-	-	notwithstanding.
outré,	-	-	-	-	besides.
par,	-	-	-	-	by.
par dessus,	-	-	-	-	above.
par dessous,	-	-	-	-	under or below.
par deçà,	-	-	-	-	on this side.
par delà,	-	-	-	-	on that side.
parmi,	-	-	-	-	among.
pendant,	-	-	-	-	during.
pour,	-	-	-	-	for.
sans,	-	-	-	-	without.
sauf,	-	-	-	-	save.
selon,	-	-	-	-	according to.
sous,	-	-	-	-	under.
suivant,	-	-	-	-	according to.
sur,	-	-	-	-	upon.
touchant,	-	-	-	-	touching.
vers,	-	-	-	-	towards, about.
vu,	-	-	-	-	seeing.

*List of Prepositions which must have the Preposition immediately after them, or that Preposition, united with the Article, when it becomes DU or DES.*

à cause,	-	-	-	-	because of.
à couvert,	-	-	-	-	sheltered from.
au-deçà,	-	-	-	-	on the side of.
au-delà,	-	-	-	-	on the other side.
au-dessus,	-	-	-	-	above.
au-dessous,	-	-	-	-	below.
au-devant,	-	-	-	-	before.
au-dérrière,	-	-	-	-	behind.
à côté,	-	-	-	-	by, beside.

à fleur,	-	-	-	-	near the edge of.
à retour,	-	-	-	-	against, in return.
aux dépens,	-	-	-	-	at the expense.
à force,	-	-	-	-	by strength of.
aux environs,	-	-	-	-	near about.
au grand regret,	-	-	-	-	to the great regret of.
à l'égard,	-	-	-	-	as to.
à l'insçu,	-	-	-	-	unknown to.
à l'exception,	-	-	-	-	excepted.
à moins,	-	-	-	-	for less, or under.
à la réserve,	-	-	-	-	reserving only, excepting.
à l'abri,	-	-	-	-	secure from.
à l'entour,	-	-	-	-	round about
à l'exclusion,	-	-	-	-	excluding.
à l'opposite,	-	-	-	-	opposite to.
au lieu,	-	-	-	-	instead of.
à la faveur,	-	-	-	-	by favour of.
à la mode,	-	-	-	-	after the manner of.
au moyen,	-	-	-	-	by means.
au milieu,	-	-	-	-	in the middle of.
au niveau,	-	-	-	-	even with.
auprès,	-	-	-	-	by, near.
au prix,	-	-	-	-	at the expense of.
au péril,	-	-	-	-	at the peril of.
au risque,	-	-	-	-	at the risk.
à raison,	-	-	-	-	at the rate.
rez de terre,	-	-	-	-	level with the ground.
au travers,	-	-	-	-	through.
en dépit,	-	-	-	-	in spite.
pour l'amour,	-	-	-	-	for the sake.
vis-à-vis,	-	-	-	-	over against.

Besides the above, there are three or four that require *à* before the succeeding Noun or Pronoun. These are *jusque* (as far as) which is written *jusqu'* because the *à* follows : as *jusqu' à la rivière*, as *far as the river*. *Par rapport à sa maison* : *with respect to his house*. *Quant à son argent* : *as for his money*.

161. Before you go further, it will be well for you to read over several times these lists of Prepositions. Copy them, that is to say, write them down, many times over ; so that you may not only them again as soon as they meet your eye ; but that you may be able to write them *correctly*, with all their *hyphens*, *elisions* and *accents* ; for these are of as much importance as are the letters of

which the words are composed. Let it be your constant habit to write in a *plain* hand. The *best* hand-writing is that which is the *easiest to read*; that which can be the most easily read by the *greatest* number of persons. Take care to put *all the marks and accents*; for, though Frenchmen, when they write, seldom do it, they ought to do it; and, in your case, the omission would, and must, retard your learning; for, the omission really makes, in many cases, nonsense of the whole thing that you are writing. *Des* is *from the time*, and *Des* is *of the*, or *some*. Then again, *A* is *has*, and *A* is *to*. The *LA* is *the*, and the *LA* is *there*. This is sufficient to show how necessary it is not to omit accents. besides, all writing ought to be correct in all its parts; and, as there is, in this case, nothing but mere attention required of you, not to do the thing properly would argue that sort of disposition, which, I am sure, will never be discovered in my dear Richard. If you have a *teacher*, these lists are excellent things as *reading lessons*. They contain words that are seen in every sentence, and that you cannot open your mouth without using. But, whether you have a teacher or not, write these lists down several times over.

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## LETTER XII.

### ETYMOLOGY OF CONJUNCTIONS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

162. The reason why words of this part of speech are called *Conjunctions* has been given you in paragraph 39. They *connect*, or *conjoin*, or *join together*, words and sentences. They, like adverbs and prepositions, *never change their form*; and, are, therefore, not attended with any particular difficulty.

163. Some of them are called *copulative* and

others *disjunctive*; the former *couple* nouns and pronouns together in sense as well as in place; as: the field *and* the house *are* sold. The others *disjoin* them in the sense; as: the field *is* sold, *but* the house *is* not. There is, perhaps, no great practical utility in this distinction; but, it being a distinction usually made, I have just noticed it. Some teachers of grammar divide Conjunctions into six or seven classes; but, this is of *no use*; and, therefore, I avoid it.

164. A thing much more useful than this is, to observe, that the *same word* is sometimes a Conjunction, sometimes an Adverb, and sometimes a Preposition. It is the sense in which the word is used that determines the part of speech to which it belongs. Some of the Conjunctions are simple; as: *comme* (as), and some compound; as: *au lieu de* (instead of). A phrase of considerable length is frequently no more than *one Conjunction*; as: *posez le cas que*, which may be translated into English by the single word *suppose*. *Poser* is to *lay down*. So that the whole of the phrase means this: *lay down the case that*. We, for instance, say, in English, *suppose that* the enemy declare war. The French say, *posez le cas que* l'ennemi déclare la guerre. But they can say, as well as we, *supposez que*. And we can say, as well as they, *suppose the case that*.

165. When a Conjunction, an Adverb, or a Preposition consists of *several words*, you must take care how you give to each of the words the meaning which it would have in its distinct state. They sometimes have this meaning, but they more frequently have not. For instance, we have, in English, this Conjunction, *as well as*; and we use it thus; I was drunk *as well as* you. But, what is there *well* here? Here is something very *bad*, but nothing at all *well*. We know, that these three words, taken together, mean, *in like manner with*, or, *in like degree with*. But, when we find, in French, *aussi bien que*, we are apt to give to each word its



separate meaning, and then they are, *also well* which is not their meaning. They mean the *as our as well as*.

106. I shall now insert the principal part of Conjunctions in alphabetical order, with the English against each.

à cause que,	-	-	-	because.
à cause de,	-	-	-	because of.
à condition que,	-	-	-	on condition that.
à dire vrai,	-	-	-	to speak the truth.
afin que,	-	-	-	to the end that.
afin de,	-	-	-	in order to.
ainsi,	-	-	-	thus, therefore according
ainsi que,	-	-	-	like, likewise.
à peine,	-	-	-	hardly, scarcely.
après que,	-	-	-	after.
après cela,	-	-	-	after that.
après tout,	-	-	-	after all, upon the whole
à propos,	-	-	-	by the by.
à quel propos,	-	-	-	wherefore, or to what end
à moins que, or de,	-	-	-	unless.
à la vérité,	-	-	-	indeed, in truth.
attendu que,	-	-	-	whereas, seeing that.
au cas que,	-	-	-	in case that.
aussi,	-	-	-	also.
aussi bien que,	-	-	-	as well as.
au lieu de,	-	-	-	instead of.
autant que,	-	-	-	as much as.
au reste,	-	-	-	as for the rest.
aussitôt que,	-	-	-	as soon as.
avant que,	-	-	-	} before.
avant de,	-	-	-	
avant que de,	-	-	-	
bien entendu que,	-	-	-	it being understood that
bien loin de,	-	-	-	far from, so far from.
bien que,	-	-	-	though.
car,	-	-	-	for.
c'est-à-dire,	-	-	-	that is to say.
c'est pour quoi,	-	-	-	therefore.
c'est à dire que,	-	-	-	that is to say that.
c'est pour,	-	-	-	it is for.
cela que,	-	-	-	that that.
cela étant,	-	-	-	that being the case.
cela étant ainsi,	-	-	-	it being thus.
ce n'est pas que,	-	-	-	not but.
cependant,	-	-	-	however, in the meanw
comme,	-	-	-	as, whereas.
comme si,	-	-	-	as if, as though.

<b>Comme par exemple,</b>	-	-	as for example.
<b>D'accord,</b>	-	-	done, agreed.
<b>D'ailleurs,</b>	-	-	besides, otherwise.
<b>Autant que,</b>	-	-	for as much as, whereas, be- <span style="float: right;">[cause.</span>
<b>Autant plus que,</b>	-	-	so much the more as.
<b>De l'autre côté</b>	-	-	on the other hand.
<b>De manière que,</b>	-	-	in such manner that.
<b>De même que,</b>	-	-	as, just as.
<b>De même,</b>	-	-	in like manner.
<b>de plus,</b>	-	-	moreover, besides.
<b>depuis,</b>	-	-	since.
<b>depuis que,</b>	-	-	since that.
<b>dès que,</b>	-	-	from the time that.
<b>de sorte que,</b>	-	-	so that.
<b>d'où vient-il que,</b>	-	-	whence comes it that.
<b>donc,</b>	-	-	then, therefore.
<b>en attendant,</b>	-	-	in the mean time.
<b>en attendant que,</b>	-	-	till, until that.
<b>en cas que,</b>	-	-	in case that.
<b>encore que,</b>	-	-	although, besides that.
<b>en effet,</b>	-	-	in effect, indeed.
<b>enfin,</b>	-	-	finally, at last.
<b>en tant que,</b>	-	-	as, in as much as.
<b>en tout cas,</b>	-	-	however, let it be as it will.
<b>ensuite,</b>	-	-	then, afterwards.
<b>en un mot,</b>	-	-	in a word.
<b>et,</b>	-	-	and.
<b>et puis,</b>	-	-	and besides.
<b>il est vrai que,</b>	-	-	it is true that.
<b>j'en conviens,</b>	-	-	I grant it.
<b>joint que,</b>	-	-	add to that that.
<b>mais,</b>	-	-	but.
<b>mais aussi,</b>	-	-	but also.
<b>mais encore,</b>	-	-	but besides.
<b>mais même,</b>	-	-	but even.
<b>même,</b>	-	-	even.
<b>mal à propos,</b>	-	-	out of place.
<b>néanmoins,</b>	-	-	nevertheless,
<b>ni,</b>	-	-	nor, neither.
<b>ni plus ni moins,</b>	-	-	neither more nor less.
<b>nonobstant que,</b>	-	-	notwithstanding that.
<b>non plus,</b>	-	-	neither.
<b>non plus que,</b>	-	-	no more than.
<b>non que, non pas que,</b>	-	-	not but.
<b>non seulement,</b>	-	-	not only.
<b>ou, or ou bien,</b>	-	-	or else.
<b>autre cela,</b>	-	-	besides that.
<b>autre que,</b>	-	-	besides that.
<b>parce que,</b>	-	-	because.

par conséquent, - - -	consequently.
par quelle raison, - - -	for what reason.
pendant que, - - -	whilst.
présenter le cas que, - - -	put the case that.
pour cet effet, - - -	for this purpose.
pour conclusion, - - -	to conclude.
pour lors, - - -	then.
pour quoi, - - -	why, wherefore.
pourvu que, - - -	provided that.
puis, - - -	then.
quand, - - -	} though, although.
quand même, - - -	
quand bien même, - - -	
quoique, - - -	although.
quoiqu'il en soit, - - -	} however it may be.
sans, sans que, - - -	be the consequence what
sans doute, - - -	without.
sans mentir, - - -	without doubt.
savoir, - - -	truly, with truth.
si, - - -	to wit.
si bien que, - - -	if, whether.
si ce n'est que, - - -	insomuch that.
sinon, - - -	except that.
si-tôt que, - - -	if not, or else.
supposez que, - - -	as soon as.
sur tout, - - -	suppose that.
sur quoi, - - -	above all, especially.
	whereupon.
sur ces entrefaites, - - -	} in the meanwhile,
	} while these things
	adoin.
tant que, - - -	as much as, as many as
tant s'en faut que, - - -	so far from it.
tellement que, - - -	in such a manner that.
toutefois, - - -	yet, for all that.
toutes les fois que, - - -	every time that.
vu que, - - -	seeing that.

167. Conjunctions govern *modes* of verbs : 1  
to say, some conjunctions have *one mode after*  
and some another mode ; but, the full explar  
of this matter must be left till I come to l  
XXVII., in which I shall treat of the *Synt*  
*Conjunctions*. The above list contains the far  
er part of the Conjunctions. You will observe  
many of these words are, as I observed b  
sometimes *Prepositions* and sometimes *Ad*  
The words of these two last parts of speech as

n number, compared with the others, the Articles and Pronouns excepted; and, therefore, they may be all written down many times over without much labour. You will observe, that these are words incessantly recurring; that there can hardly ever be a sentence without one or more of them in it; and that the sooner you become acquainted with them all, the better. As I observed, in the case of the Prepositions, take care, in writing the words, to put all the *hyphens*, *elisions*, and *accents*.

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### LETTER XIII.

#### ON PARSING.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

168. You have now gone through the whole of the *Etymology*. The object of this part of the Grammar has been to teach you to distinguish one sort of words, or part of speech, from each of the others; and also to teach you how to make the several changes in the spelling of the words. The *Syntax*, when you come to it, will teach you how to choose our words in the making of sentences, and also how to place them. As yet you cannot know how to write French correctly; how to make a French sentence; but, before you go any further, I shall give you an *Exercise* in *Parsing*, which will lead you to reconsider what you have learned.

169. To PARSE, is to *put into parts*. It comes from the Latin word *pars*, which means *part*. There is a French word, *parsemer*, which means, to *scatter*; or put asunder. And this word, *to parse*, is used by grammarians to denominate the act of taking the words of a sentence, one by one, and writing against each, the *part of speech that it belongs to*. Thus: *I* write a letter to you. I is a personal pronoun; WRITE is a verb; A is an article; LETTER is a noun; to is a preposition; you is a personal pronoun.

The same sentence in French would be, *Je vous écris une lettre*. The *JE* and *vous* are personal pronouns; *ÉCRIS* is a verb; *UNE* is an article; *LETTRE* is a noun; and, you see, there is *no preposition*; for, in this case, *vous* means *to you*. We can say the same thing without the preposition: as, *I write you a letter*. But we cannot say, *I you write a letter*. These latter remarks do not, however, belong to the subject immediately before us, though they may serve to make an opening and to smoothe the way to the Syntax. Before you go any further, look again at paragraph 42, and attend well to what you find there. As you proceed in this work of *parsing*, I beg you to *try yourself* in the manner pointed out in paragraph 42.

170. I shall now give you a series of sentences *to parse*. They will be of very simple construction. I shall give the French as well as the English of each sentence. The first sentence I shall parse myself; and you will proceed with the rest, and go patiently through the whole of the sentences, taking word by word, writing them down, and writing against them in the manner that you will find in the example that I am about to give you. You have been told before, that you are never to expect, that a phrase, however short it may be, is to be translated from one language into the other, *word for word*. you will now *see* that this is the case. I shall mark these little exercises, A, B, C, and so on; in order, that I may easily refer you to them, if necessary. When you have gone through one of these little Exercises, you ought, where you have any doubt, to look at the Dictionary. It will tell you, whether you have done the Exercise properly. But look well at each word before you write against it. Consider well its meaning and the function it performs in this particular case. One Exercise done with care is worth a thousand done carelessly.

A. Le Serin est, après le Rossignol l'oiseau qui chante le mieux, et qui a la voix la plus forte. Il apprend aisément, quand il est jeune, à parler, et à siffler des airs de flageolet; ce qu'il fait plus facilement que le Pinçon, et il le fait mieux.

Le,	Article.
Serin,	noun.
est,	verb.
après,	preposition.
le,	article.
Rossignol,	noun.
l',	article.
oiseau,	noun.
qui,	relative pronoun.
chante,	verb.
le,	article.
mieux,	adverb.
et,	conjunction.
qui,	relative pronoun.
a,	verb.
le,	article.
voix,	noun.
la plus,	adverb.
forte,	adjective.
Il,	pronoun.
apprend,	verb.
aisément,	adverb.
quand,	adverb.
il,	pronoun.
est,	verb.
jeune,	adjective.
à,	preposition.
parler,	verb.
et,	conjunction.
à,	preposition.
siffler,	verb.
des,	article united with preposition
airs,	noun.
de,	preposition.
flageolet,	noun.
ce qu',	pronoun.
il,	pronoun.
fait,	verb.

The Canary is, after the Nightingale, the bird which sings the best, and which has the strongest voice. It learns easily when it is young, to talk, and to whistle tunes of the flageolet; which it does more readily than the Chaffinch, and it does it better.

The,	Article.
Canary,	noun.
is,	verb.
after,	preposition.
the,	article.
Nightingale,	noun.
the,	article.
bird,	noun.
which,	relative pronoun.
sings,	verb.
the,	article.
best,	adverb.
and,	conjunction.
which,	relative pronoun.
has,	verb.
the,	article.
strongest,	adjective.
voice,	noun.
It,	pronoun.
learns,	verb.
easily,	adverb.
when,	adverb.
it,	pronoun.
is,	verb.
young,	adjective.
to,	preposition.
talk,	verb.
and,	conjunction.
to,	preposition.
whistle,	verb.
tunes,	noun.
of,	preposition.
the,	article.
flageolet,	noun.
which,	relative pronoun.
it,	pronoun.
does,	verb.

plus,	adverb.	more,	adverb.
facilement,	adverb.	readily,	adverb.
que,	conjunction.	than,	conjunction.
le,	article.	the,	article.
Pinçon,	noun.	Chaffinch,	noun.
et,	conjunction.	and,	conjunction.
il,	pronoun.	it,	pronoun.
le,	pronoun.	does,	verb.
fait,	verb.	it,	pronoun.
mieux.	adverb.	better.	adverb.

171. If you examine well the words of these two little pieces of writing, the examination will show you a great deal as to the *difference in the two languages*. Look at the closing parts for instance. The French say, *il le fait mieux*; that is, *he does it better*; but we say, *it does it better*. The Canary-Bird is a *he* in French, and an *it* in English; and, you see, the French put the words in an order very different from that which we employ.

172. Now proceed in the same way with the little pieces of French and English which follow here. They have been selected for their clearness and simplicity. The English and French both are given, in order that you may compare the one with the other. The translation is not elegant, but as literal as it could be made without making the English a sort of *broken English*. Instead of saying, "the Canary-bird is, after the Nightingale, the bird which sings the best, and which has the strongest voice:" instead of this, it might have been thus: "Except the Nightingale, the Canary is the best singing-bird, and has the strongest voice." This would have been rather *better English*; but, in order to make the matter as little difficult as possible for you, the translation has been made, as nearly as I could well make it, word for word; but, yet, you see, it is not word for word, even in this simple instance.

173. The way to proceed with the following sentences is precisely that which has been just pointed out in paragraph 170. And, let me beg of you not to *slur* this business over, but go patiently through

it, writing down, in a plain hand, all the sentences, English as well as French ; and, when you have *parsed* one of the sentences, examine it by the Dictionary, to see whether what you have done be correctly done. Paragraphs 42 and 43 contain matter, which you should now have fresh in your mind. Read, therefore, those two paragraphs again very attentively, and, while you are at your work of parsing, act according to what is stated in those paragraphs ; for, unless you attend to that, your parsing cannot be correct, and you will not profit, in the degree that you ought to profit, from your labour.

B. C'est du nom Latin, *Lucinola*, qu'on a formé le nom de *Rosignol*. Cette étymologie est beaucoup meilleure que toutes celles données sur le nom de cet oiseau.

C. Le moineau est un oiseau très commun : il pèse un peu plus d'une once ; il a six pouces de longueur depuis la pointe du bec jusqu'au bout de la queue.

D. Le chardonneret est un petit oiseau, qui a le bec de figure conique, blanchâtre. Il est plus petit que le moineau ; le sommet de sa tête est noir, ses mâchoires sont blanches de même que le derrière de sa tête.

E. Le chant de l'alouette est très divertissant ; il est varié ; les bémols et les béquarres s'y distinguent très-bien.

F. Le pinçon est un oiseau un peu plus petit qu'un moineau ; sa queue est assez longue ; le mâle a la poitrine roussâtre ; le bec plombé, la tête blanchâtre ; la partie postérieure du dos d'un cendré-vert, et l'antérieure grise ; le

It is from the Latin name, *Luciniola*, that we have formed the word *Rosignol*. This etymology is much better than all those given on the name of this bird.

The sparrow is a very common bird ; it weighs a little more than an ounce, it is six inches long from the point of the beak to the tip of the tail.

The goldfinch is a small bird, which has the beak of a conical shape, and whitish. It is smaller than the sparrow ; the top of its head is black, its gills are white, the same as the back of its head.

The singing of the lark is very diverting ; it is varied ; the Bs flat and the Bs sharp are distinguished in it very easily.

The chaffinch is a bird a little smaller than a sparrow ; its tail is pretty long ; the male has a reddish breast ; the beak lead-coloured, the head whitish ; the hinder part of the back of a green-ash colour, and the forepart grey ; round the eyes,



tour des yeux, la gorge, la poitrine et les côtés tannés; le cou ceint de la même couleur, rougeâtre; les ailes noires, avec une triple tache blanche.

G. Les champs ouverts ont, comme les jardins, leurs fruits particuliers à chaque saison de l'année.

H. Les abeilles, ou mouches à miel, sont d'un grand profit à la maison, par le miel, la cire et les essaims qu'elles donnent: elles ne coûtent rien à nourrir, et ne demandent que quelques soins.

I. Le ver à soie, l'une des plus riche et des plus surprenantes productions de la nature, n'offre pas moins que les abeilles, de l'utile, de l'agréable, et même du merveilleux.

J. Le Paon, oiseau fort connue à cause de la beauté de sa queue, magnifiquement parée de différentes couleurs et qui semble représenter de grands yeux.

K. Les pigeons communs sont, ou fuyards ou domestiques; les derniers ne quittent presque pas la maison, mais les autres vont chercher leur vie au loin; les uns ni les autres ne perchent point sur les arbres, et ils diffèrent par là du pigeon ramier, qui habite les bois.

L. Pour réussir à élever des poules, il faut savoir les choisir.

M. La race, venue des Indes, est d'un grand profit, parce qu'elle multiplie beaucoup, aisément et souvent.

N. Les plumes des oies, leur chair, leur graisse et leurs œufs, dont elles font par an trois pontes très abondantes,

the throat, the breast and sides tan-coloured; the neck with a circle of the same colour, reddish; the wings black, with three white spots.

The open fields have, like the gardens, their particular fruits at each season of the year.

Bees are of great use in a house, on account of the honey, the wax, and the swarms that they produce: they cost nothing to keep, and want nothing but a little care.

The silk-worm, one of the most rich and most surprising productions of nature, offers, not less than bees, that which is useful, agreeable, and even wonderful.

The peacock, a bird well known on account of the beauty of his tail, magnificently adorned with different colours, which seem to represent great eyes.

Common pigeons are either wild or tame, the last scarcely quit the house, but the others seek their living at a distance; neither the one nor the other perch on trees, and they differ in that from the wood-pigeon which lives in the woods.

To succeed in raising fowls, we must know how to choose the breeders.

The race that come from India (turkeys) are very profitable, because they multiply much, easily and often.

The feathers of geese, their flesh, their grease, and their eggs, of which they have yearly three very abundant

sont beaucoup de profit, d'autant qu'elles vivent très longtemps; elles sont assez vigilantes pour servir de sûre garde la nuit, au moindre bruit elles s'éveillent, et jettent de grands cris qui avertissent.

O. Des canards domestiques, canes et canetons. Ces trois mots désignent le père, la mère et le petit; le mâle est plus gros que la femelle, et se distingue encore à son cou qui est d'un vert doré et changeant; il a quelques plumes de la queue retroussées vers son extrémité supérieure.

P. Le cochon est un animal, mâle, gourmand, et qui fait du dégât partout où il passe; cependant, c'est un de ceux qui font le plus de profit, parce qu'une truie porte deux fois l'année et donne, chaque fois, depuis dix jusqu'à quinze cochons. Le cochon réussit dans tous le pays, et il est d'un très-grand usage.

Q. Les farines de toutes les graines, extraites par une suffisante quantité d'eau, et abandonnées à elles-mêmes au degré de chaleur propre à la fermentation spiritueuse, subissent naturellement la fermentation, et sont métamorphosées en véritable liqueur.

R. Comme aliment ordinaire, comme assaisonnement, comme remède, le lait est d'un excellent produit.

S. Le jardinage réunit toutes les opérations de l'agriculture, mais sous un rapport plus circonscrit et plus agréable; car il exige des connaissances particulières et très-étendues.

T. L'exercice de la chasse

layings, yield a great deal of profit, and the more, as they live a long time; they are sufficiently vigilant, to serve as a sure guard in the night; at the smallest noise they wake and give loud cries which warn.

Tame drakes, ducks, and ducklings. These three words designate the father, the mother and the young one; the male is bigger than the female, and is distinguished besides by his neck which is of a gilded and changeable green: he has some feathers in the tail curled back towards his head.

The hog is a filthy animal, a glutton, and one that makes destruction wherever he goes; but he is one of those which yield the most profit, because a sow farrows twice a year, and has, each time, from ten to fifteen pigs. The hog succeeds in all countries, and is very much in use.

The meal of all grains, extracted by a sufficient quantity of water, and left to itself at the proper degree of heat for spirituous fermentation, naturally undergoes the fermentation and is metamorphosed into real spirituous liquors.

As ordinary food, as an ingredient, as a remedy, milk is an article of great value.

Gardening unites all the operations of agriculture, but in a way more compact and much more pleasing; for it requires knowledge at once minute and very extensive.

The exercise of hunting can-

ne peut être, comme tout autre, que favorable à la santé ; c'est l'exercice le plus sain pour le corps, et le repos le plus agréable pour l'esprit.

U. La pêche est un agréable passe-temps qu'on peut prendre à la campagne ; elle est divertissante, utile et d'une pratique facile pour peu qu'on ait de patience.

V. Les petites chasses, qui se font à peu de frais et sans peine dans les différentes saisons de l'année, et sur tout pendant l'automne et l'hiver, sont très-amusantes.

W. Le cheval est celui de tous les animaux qui, avec une grande taille, a le plus d'élégance et de proportion dans les parties du corps. C'est le plus nécessaire, le plus noble de tous les animaux domestiques.

X. L'âne est d'un tempérament mélancolique, patient et laborieux, mais fort-obstiné ; il porte des fardeaux considérables pour sa grosseur : il tire à la charrette, et à la charrue dans les terres légères : il vit de peu, et ne coûte presque rien à nourrir.

Y. Les bêtes à laine sont les bestiaux qui font le plus de profit par leur fécondité, leur toison, leur chair, leur lait, leur graisse, leurs peaux, leur fumier même. Un troupeau est l'âme d'une ferme.

Z. Le bœuf est le plus estimé d'entre les bêtes à cornes ; il coûte peu d'entretien, et rend beaucoup de profit ; il est bon au trait et à la charrue, peu sujet aux maladies, et aisé à

not but be, like every other, favourable to health ; it is the exercise the most healthful for the body, and the relaxation the most agreeable for the mind.

Fishing is an agreeable pastime that you may have in the country ; it is diverting, useful and easy to do, if you have but a little patience.

The smaller sports, which are followed at little expense and without trouble in the different seasons of the year, and particularly in the autumn and in the winter, are very amusing.

The horse is, of all animals, that which, with a large frame, has the most elegance and proportion in the parts of the body. It is the most necessary, the most noble, of all domestic animals.

The ass is of a gloomy temper, patient and laborious, but very obstinate ; he carries large burdens for his size ; he draws the cart, and the plough in light lands : he lives upon little, and costs scarcely any thing to keep.

Sheep are the animals, which yield the greatest profit, from their fecundity, their fleece, their flesh, their milk, their fat, their skins, even their dung. A flock is the soul of a farm.

The ox is the most valuable amongst horned animals ; he costs little, and yields a great deal of profit ; he is good for draught and for the plough, little subject to maladies and

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easily cured of them; he lives to a pretty good age; there wants scarcely any harness for him, though there is no animal more fit for the plough.

## LETTER XIV.

RELATING TO THE GENDERS OF NOUNS, AND TO THE CONJUGATIONS AND THE IRREGULARITIES OF VERBS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

174. I now come to those cumbrous masses of words, which, if they had been introduced before, would have wholly broken asunder that chain of instruction, which I wished to keep entire. In paragraphs 64 and 65, I *put off*, as you will recollect, what I had further to say on the GENDERS OF NOUNS; and, you will also recollect, that, in paragraphs 121 and 122, I *put off* what I had further to say on the TEN CONJUGATIONS OF REGULAR VERBS, and on the IRREGULAR VERBS. If you now read again paragraph 122, it will not be necessary for me to say, in this place, any thing further respecting my *reasons* for having thus postponed the details upon these three subjects. These details I shall now give, under the three heads just named; and I call these so many *TASKS*, because this word implies a rather laborious affair. Indeed that which you will find pointed out by this Letter is *mere labour* for the *hand*, the *eye*, and the *memory*. The genders of Nouns *belonged* to the Etymology of Nouns; the Conjugations and Irregularities of Verbs *belonged* to the Etymology of Verbs; and, the *principles* relating to them were sufficiently dwelt on in the proper places: but, the *details*, the *lists*, the *mere memory-part*, could not be gone into there, without making, in your study of principles, chasms too wide. Having gone through the Etymology

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of all the sorts of words, or parts of speech, we come to a proper place for introducing these details; for, though they are matters for the memory only, they ought to be pretty well secured before we go further in advance. When we have secured them, we shall enter upon the SYNTAX; and shall find it, I trust, a matter of pleasure rather than of toil.

175. Our first TASK is, then, the ascertaining of the GENDERS OF NOUNS. Now read paragraphs, from 54 to 65, both inclusive, carefully through. When you have done that, look attentively at paragraph 64 once more; for I am now going to give you a specimen of my way of going to work as I have described it in this last-mentioned paragraph. I shall begin with letter A of the Dictionary; that is to say, with the beginning. I shall, in giving you this specimen, take some nouns that begin with that Letter. Then take some that begin with B; and so on, till I have gone through the alphabet.

176. The TASK is, simply that of writing down, in alphabetical order, in a little blank-book, all the nouns in the language; and just putting *le* or *la* before each, according to the gender. In the Dictionary you will find against each noun *s. m.* or *s. f.* that is to say, *substantive* (or noun) *masculine*; or, *substantive* (or noun) *feminine*. And, when you write the nouns in your book, you will put before each the *le* or the *la* according as you find the noun to be a masculine, or a feminine.

177. But, you cannot go through the whole of the Dictionary precisely in this way; for, if the noun begin with a vowel, or with an *h* mute, the definite article for *both genders* is *l'*. Therefore, in these cases; that is to say, as to the nouns beginning with *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, and *h* mute, you must use the indefinite article, *un* or *une*.

178. Then again, there are some nouns, which begin with a vowel, and which have neither plural nor singular: as *argent*. We cannot say, *un argent*. So that, in such a case as this, the best way will be

at the adjective *good* (*bon* or *bonne*) before the ; and that will very plainly mark the gender.

2. There are, besides, some few nouns that are *plural* and never *singular*: as, *vivres*, *victuals*. the plural definite article, *les*, is for *both* gen-

In such cases also you must put the *adjectives* in the case of *argent*: and, thus, you will, *write*: *de bon argent*, *de bons vivres*; but, you have to write down *water* and *snuffers*, will write, *de bon eau*, and *de bonnes mouchettes*.

3. I have not put the *English* opposite the *French*. It is of no use in this case. It can only do the labour, and thereby cause a loss of time. The object is to get the genders of the nouns well in your memory; and, for the doing of this, is nothing like the *writing of the thing down*. Let me now give the little specimen that I have been talking of; and, when I have done that, I have a few more to make on the subject.

A.	B.	C.
le: an alder tree.	de bon habere.	la capote.
no: an ell.	la barbine.	la caque.
argent.	le bac.	le couteau.
D.	E.	F.
	de bonne eau.	de bon froment.
	une échauche.	la framboise.
	un éblouissement.	le framboisier.
G.	H.	I.
	de bonnes hardes.	une image.
	la hache.	une intrigue.
	le haricot.	un interprète.
J.	L.	M.
le livre.	le livre: the book.	le mot.
la livre.	la livre: the pound.	le magasin.
	d'étroites limites.	de bons matériaux.
N.	O.	P.
un œil.	un œil.	la pomme.
un œuf.	un œuf.	la poire.
une oye.	une oye.	le puits.
Q.	R.	S.
le renard.	le renard.	la source.
la récompense.	la récompense.	le songe.
la récolte.	la récolte.	le sourcil.



T.	U.	V.
le tabac.	une urne.	le vacarme.
la table.	un usage.	de longues vacances.
la tache.	une usance.	la vanne.
	Y.	Z.
	une yeuse.	le zain.
		le zeie.
		la zibeline.

181. In paragraphs 178 and 179, I directed you to take the adjective *good* (*bon* or *bons*, *bonne* or *bonnes*); but, in some cases, this adjective would make nonsense of the phrase. It is very well to say, *de bon beurre*, good *buttermilk*; but, it would be nonsense to say, *de bonnes vacances*, good *holidays*. Therefore I have put *longues* before *vacances*, which denotes the gender as clearly as the adjective *bonnes* would do it.

182. You will observe, that I have merely given a specimen under each letter of the alphabet. I have not taken the nouns which stand first under each letter. But *you* will begin at the first noun under A, and will write down *every one*, in the order in which you find it placed in the Dictionary. Observe, however, that where the same noun has several *distinct significations*, and is, therefore, repeated several times in the Dictionary; as in the case of the noun *mot*, you need write the word down but once; unless, indeed, as is sometimes the case, the same noun, that is to say, a noun consisting of the same letters, and those letters placed in the same order, be masculine in *one sense* and feminine in *another*. This is the case with regard to the two nouns which stand first under the letter A in the foregoing specimens; and also in the case of the two first nouns under the letter L. When this is the case it will be useful to write down, the *English* of the words, as I have done in the two cases just pointed out.

183. Now, this is the *TASK*; and, some labour it certainly does require; but, it does not require any great deal of labour. The whole of the nouns may

be written down, in this way, in *six days*. But, when I had written the whole down upon paper of the common size, I copied them into a little book, made of *very thin paper*, three inches long, and two wide. I divided the pages of this book each into two columns, and each column had about *thirty* nouns. This little book was *always about me*. It went into my pocket book, and did not, perhaps, weigh the twentieth part of an ounce. Sitting, walking, riding; whatever my situation, I could always refer to my little book in a moment. This method is, therefore, the one that I beg you to pursue. Once more let me remind you of the necessity of writing down the words *correctly*. You must not omit any of the *accents*; for they, as you have seen before, are, in some cases, of as much importance as the letters. Write in a *plain* hand. Writing may be neat and plain, though very small, which yours must be when you come to put the nouns into the little book before mentioned.

194. Having performed this TASK, which may possibly require ten days to do it well, and to make your little book in a very neat manner, you will proceed to the next TASK; but, before you do this, spend *two days* in reading through all the foregoing THIRTEEN LETTERS; because, by the end of the ten days, which the list of nouns will demand, it will be necessary to bring your mind back to the previous part of the grammar. Having read carefully through the whole of the grammar up to this place, having taken this review of your labours, you will proceed to the next TASK, which is by no means less necessary, but is much less laborious.

195. The CONJUGATION OF REGULAR VERBS forms the subject of the second TASK. In paragraph 118, I have explained the meaning of the word *Conjugation*, and have given you the conjugation of an English Verb and of a French Verb. In paragraphs 120 and 121, I have spoken of the *ten Conjugations* of French Verbs, and, in paragraph 122, I have

spoken of the *Irregular Verbs*. Read all these paragraphs carefully through now. Pay great attention to all that they contain; and, when you have gone through them in this careful manner, you will be ready to enter on the ten conjugations.

186. If I had to make a *Dictionary*, I would make but *two* conjugations; but I must take the Dictionary as I find it. It is, however, a matter of little consequence, so that we attend to what we are about. The French verbs are, as was observed in paragraph 121, considered as divided into *ten conjugations*. These are denoted in the Dictionary by the figures, 1, 2, 3, and so on to 10. You have seen, that a French verb takes more than *thirty different forms*. These forms are different according to the different conjugations. You have seen that *Tuer* (to kill) becomes *tue, tuons, tuez, tuent*. But, *Agir* (to act) becomes, in some cases, *agis, agissons, agissez, agissent*. The changes in this last verb are very different from those in the former verb. These two verbs are said to belong to different conjugations, because the changes in one of them are different from the changes in the other; and, if you look into the Dictionary you will find the figure 1 after *Tuer* and the figure 2 after *Agir*; because the former verb is of the first and the latter of the second conjugation.

187. You will now be ready to ask, what are the marks which designate the conjugations; that is to say, what is it that makes us say, that *this verb* belongs to such a conjugation, and *that verb* belongs to such other conjugation? The designating marks are *the endings of the verbs*. And the method adopted has been this: to call the verbs ending in *er* verbs of the first conjugation, those in *ir* of the second, in *ir* of the third, in *enir* of the fourth, in *evir* of the fifth, in *aire* of the sixth, in *indre* of the seventh, in *oitre* of the eighth, in *uire* of the ninth, in *dre* of the tenth.

188. But, you may say, what is the *use* of all

this classifying? Oh! a great deal of *use*, as I will now show you. Suppose you have to translate this phrase: *You kill a sheep*. You write: *vous tuez un mouton*. Then this phrase: *you act well*. You, if you paid no attention to conjugation, would write, *vous agiz bien*. But, knowing by its ending, that *agir* is of the second conjugation, and, having learned the manner of making the changes in the verbs of that conjugation, you would write, not *agiz*, but *agissez*.

189. What you have now to do, then, is to learn the manner of making the changes in the verbs of all these *ten conjugations*. In order to teach you this, I shall take one verb of each of the ten conjugations, and conjugate it all through; that is to say, exhibit it in all its forms, from that of the Infinitive Mode to that of the Participle, in the same manner that I have exhibited the verb *TUER*, in paragraph 118. The verbs which I shall take for this purpose are the following:

1. <i>TUER</i> , to kill.	6. <i>FAIRE</i> , to make, or do.
2. <i>AGIR</i> , to act.	7. <i>JOINDRE</i> , to join.
3. <i>MENTIR</i> , to lie.	8. <i>CROÎTRE</i> , to grow.
4. <i>VENIR</i> , to come.	9. <i>CUIRE</i> , to cook.
5. <i>DEVOIR</i> , to owe.	10. <i>VENDRE</i> , to sell.

Here is one verb of each of the ten conjugations; and, if you were to look out these verbs in the Dictionary, you would find a figure against each agreeing with what you see here. Bear in mind, then, that the verbs of the first conjugation end in *er*, those of the second in *ir*, of the third in *tir*, the fourth in *enir*, the fifth *evoir*, the sixth *aire*, the seventh *oindre*, the eighth *oitre*, the ninth *uire*, and the tenth *endre* and *ondre*.

190. There will be some remarks to make upon each conjugation, and, in order that all may be as plain as possible, I shall make one page contain the remarks on each conjugation, and shall exhibit a verb regularly conjugated on the opposite page; so that, when you turn over the leaf, you will come to a fresh conjugation.

**191. FIRST CONJUGATION.** Paragraphs 121 and 122 have explained to you what *Irregular Verbs* are ; and you are to observe, that there are some of those of each Conjugation. But, besides these irregulars, there are some *little irregularities* in several of the verbs of this first conjugation. 1. When there is a *g* immediately before the *er*, the *e* is not dropped in those parts of the verb which require an *o* or an *a* to come after the *g*. In **NAGER** (to swim), for instance, we should, if we followed the general rule, say, *je nagois* ; but, this would introduce the hard sound of *gois* : we, therefore, say, *je nageois*. And, in the active participle, we say, *nageant* ; and not *nagant*.—2. When a question is asked, and the verb is immediately followed by the pronoun *je*, the *e* is changed into an *é* : as *tué-je* ? Kill I ?—3. Verbs which end in *uyer*, *oyer*, *ayer*, and *eyer*, are, by *some* writers, made to change the *y* into *i*, in those parts of the verb where the *y* comes immediately before an *e* mute ; and, therefore, instead of *je paye* (I pay), such writers use, *je paie*. The verb *envoyer* (to send) makes *enverrai*, in the future, and *enverrois*, in the past of the subjunctive :—4. The verbs *appeler* (to call) and *jeter* (to throw) double the *l* and the *t* in those parts of the verb which take an *e* mute immediately after the *l* and *t* : as, *j'appelle*, and not *j'appele* ; *je jette*, and not *je jete*. This is the case in a very few other instances.—5. When the verb ends in *cer*, the *c* must have a *cedille* placed under it, when it is immediately followed by an *a* or an *o* : as : *tracer* (to trace), *je traçois*, *il traça*.—These irregularities amount to very little ; and all the verbs in *er* are to be considered as *regular*, except **ALLER** and **PTER**.—6. In the part of the verb which ends with a *vowel*, and which, when a question is asked, is followed by *il* or *elle*, there must be a *t* put between the verb and the *il* or *elle*, with a double hyphen ; thus : *tue-t-il* ? does he kill ? *tua-t-il* ? did he kill ? This is merely for the sake of the sound, which, without the *t*, would be very disagreeable.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Tuer,

To Kill.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je tue	I kill
		tu tues	thou killest
		il tue	he kills
		nous tuons	we kill
		vous tuez	you kill
		ils tuent	they kill
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je tuois	I killed
		tu tuois	thou killedst
		il tuoit	he killed
		nous tuions	we killed
		vous tueiez	you killed
		ils tuoient	they killed
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je tuai	I killed
		tu tuas	thou killedst
		il tua	he killed
		nous tuâmes	we killed
		vous tuâtes	you killed
		ils tuèrent	they killed
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je tuerai	I shall kill
		tu tueras	thou shalt kill
		il tuera	he shall kill
		nous tuerons	we shall kill
		vous tuerez	you shall kill
		ils tueront	they shall kill

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je tue	I may kill
		tu tues	thou mayest kill
		il tue	he may kill
		nous tuions	we may kill
		vous tueiez	you may kill
		ils tuent	they may kill
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je tuerois	I should kill
		tu tuerois	thou shouldest kill
		il tueroit	he should kill
		nous tuerions	we should kill
		vous tueriez	you should kill
		ils tueroient	they should kill
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je tuasse	I might kill
		tu tuasses	thou mightest kill
		il tuât	he might kill
		nous tuassions	we might kill
		vous tuassiez	you might kill
		ils tuassent	they might kill

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

tue	kill	tuons	let us kill
qu'il tue	let him kill	tuez	kill
		qu' ils tuent	let them kill

## PARTICIPLES.

tuant	killing	tué	killed.
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**192. SECOND CONJUGATION.** The Verbs of this conjugation end (in their infinitive mode) in *ir*. There are, however, two other conjugations which end in *ir*; namely, the *third* and *fourth*, as you have seen in paragraph 189. But, these two end in *tir* and *enir*. Of the second conjugation, the verb on the opposite page is one. There are about 200 verbs of this second conjugation.—I have before observed, that, in conjugating the verbs, I purposely leave out the *compound times*, because they present *no additional change* in the form of the verb: they merely present you with a conjugation of the verbs *avoir* and *être* with the passive participle after them. In the *Subjunctive Mode*, a *que* is understood, always; as, *que j'agisse*, that I may act; but the *que* is left out, in the conjugations, in order to avoid encumbering the page. The two languages differ so very widely in the cases where these *mays* and *mights* and *shoulds* or *woulds* come in, that it is impossible to translate literally. This matter will be fully explained in Letter XXIV., where I shall show how the French supply the place of these little words.—It may be useful to add a word or two here about the PARTICIPLES. The active participle, as *TUANT*, *AGISSANT*, never changes its form; but, the passive participle does change its form, in some cases. *Tué*, for instance, is the passive participle of the verb *Tuer*; but, this participle is sometimes *tué*, at others, *tués*, at others, *tuée*, and at others, *tuées*. When the passive participle ought to change its form, and when it ought not, is not to be learned by us without great attention. This matter, which is of the first importance, I shall treat of fully in the *Syntax of Verbs*, in Letter XXIII. The changes in the form of the passive participle are not given in the conjugations; because the participle is not always subject to change. The changes depend upon the construction of the sentence in which the participle is used: and you have not yet come to the construction of sentences.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Agir

To Act.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	j' agis	I act
		tu agis	thou actest
		il agit	he acts
		nous agissons	we act
		vous agissez	you act
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils agissent	they act
		j' agissois	I acted
		tu agissois	thou actedst
		il agissoit	he acted
		nous agissions	we acted
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous agissiez	you acted
		ils agissaient	they acted
		j' agis	I acted
		tu agis	thou actedst
		il agit	he acted
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	nous agirons	we acted
		vous agiriez	you acted
		ils agiraient	they acted
		j' agirai	I shall act
		tu agira	thou shalt act
	{	il agira	he shall act
		nous agirons	we shall act
		vous agirez	you shall act
		ils agiront	they shall act

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	j' agisse	I may act
		tu agisses	thou mayest act
		il agisse	he may act
		nous agissions	we may act
		vous agissiez	you may act
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils agissent	they may act
		j' agirois	I should act
		tu agirois	thou shouldst act
		il agiroit	he should act
		nous agirions	we should act
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous agiriez	you should act
		ils agiraient	they should act
		j' agisse	I might act
		tu agisses	thou mightest act
		il agît	he might act
	{	nous agissions	we might act
		vous agissiez	you might act
		ils agissent	they might act

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

agis	act	agissons	let us act
qu' il agisse	let him act	agissez	act
		qu' ils agissent	let them act

## PARTICIPLES.

agissant    acting    |    agi    acted.



**193. THIRD CONJUGATION.** These are verbs in *tir*, though it ought to be observed, that there are *some* of the verbs of the SECOND conjugation which end in *tir*. However, this can produce no mistake, because I shall here subjoin a list of all the verbs of this conjugation.—There are THIRTEEN of them; and they are as follows :

Consentir,	to consent.	Resentir,	to resent.
Démentir,	to give the lie.	Ressortir,	to go out again.
Desservir,	to clear the table.	Sentir,	to feel.
Mentir,	to lie.	Servir,	to serve.
Partir,	to set out.	Se Repentir,	to repent.
Pressentir,	to foresee.	Sortir,	to go out.
Repartir,	to set out again.		

You will see, that several of these verbs are derived from others of them : as *répartir* comes from *partir*. I have, however, placed them here in alphabetical order.—I must also observe, that the English is not, in these cases, always a *full translation* of the French. *Sentir*, for instance, means, sometimes, to *smell* ; and *répartir* means to *reply*, as well as to *set out again*.—But, these matters you will soon become well acquainted with by those frequent references to the Dictionary, which will be required, when you come to translate. At present you have more to do with the *forms* of words, and with the changes in those forms, than with the various meanings of words.—Paragraph 192 should be read with attention. The observations which it contains, relative to the manner of using the *will*, *shall*, and so forth, apply to all the conjugations ; and I will here add another observation equally applicable to all of them ; namely, that I made little use of *points* in the tables of conjugation ; because we have not, in fact, *sentences*, here, but merely *lists of words*. Small letters have, at the beginning of words, been used as much as possible, instead of capitals, in order to save room.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Mentir

To Lie.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je mens	I lie
		tu mens	thou liest
		il ment	he lies
		nous mentons	we lie
		vous mentez	you lie
		ils mentent	they lie
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je mentais	I lied
		tu mentais	thou liedst
		il mentait	he lied
		nous mentions	we lied
		vous mentiez	you lied
		ils mentaient	they lied
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je mentis	I lied
		tu mentis	thou liedst
		il mentit	he lied
		nous mentimes	we lied
		vous mentîtes	you lied
		ils mentirent	they lied
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je mentirai	I shall lie
		tu mentiras	thou shalt lie
		il mentira	he shall lie
		nous mentirons	we shall lie
		vous mentirez	you shall lie
		ils mentiront	they shall lie

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je mente	I may lie
		tu mentes	thou mayest lie
		il mente	he may lie
		nous mentions	we may lie
		vous mentiez	you may lie
		ils mentent	they may lie
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je mentirais	I should lie
		tu mentirais	thou shouldst lie
		il mentirait	he should lie
		nous mentirions	we should lie
		vous mentiriez	you should lie
		ils mentiraient	they should lie
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je mentisse	I might lie
		tu mentisses	thou mightest lie
		il mentît	he might lie
		nous mentissions	we might lie
		vous mentissiez	you might lie
		ils mentissent	they might lie

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

mens	lie	mentons	let us lie
qu'il mente	let him lie	mentez	lie
		qu'ils mentent	let them lie

## PARTICIPLES.

mentant    lying    /    menti    lied

194. **FOURTH CONJUGATION.** The verbs of this conjugation end in *enir*; as you see in the case of **VENIR**.—There are **TWENTY-FOUR** of them, as follows:

<b>S'Abstenir,</b>	to abstain.	<b>Parvenir,</b>	to succeed.
<b>Apartenir,</b>	to belong.	<b>Prévenir,</b>	to prevent.
<b>Contenir,</b>	to contain.	<b>Provenir,</b>	to result from.
<b>Contrevenir,</b>	to contravene.	<b>Retenir,</b>	to retain.
<b>Convénir,</b>	to agree to.	<b>Se Ressouvenir,</b>	to call to mind.
<b>Détenir,</b>	to detain.	<b>Revenir,</b>	to come back.
<b>Devenir,</b>	to become.	<b>Soutenir,</b>	to sustain.
<b>Disconvenir,</b>	to dissent from.	<b>Se Souvenir,</b>	to remember.
<b>Entretenir,</b>	to keep up.	<b>Subvenir,</b>	to come to the help of.
<b>Intervenir,</b>	to intervene.	<b>Survenir,</b>	to happen.
<b>Maintenir,</b>	to maintain.	<b>Tenir,</b>	to hold.
<b>Obtenir,</b>	to obtain.	<b>Venir,</b>	to come.

Here are, in fact, but *two* original verbs, all the other twenty-two being partly made out of them; and, it is curious enough, that these two should be the two *last* upon the list. Every one of these verbs expresses something about *holding* or *coming*. **ABSTENIR** is to *back hold*, or *hold back*. **APARTENIR** is to *apart hold*, or *hold apart*, or, rather, *to be held apart*. **MAINTENIR** is to *hand hold*, or, hold fast, or firmly. **INTERVENIR** is to *come between*. **PARVENIR** is to *come by*, or *at*. **PREVENIR** is to *come before*. This is, too, the meaning of our word, *prevent*; and hence in one of the prayers of the Liturgy, we say, "*prevent* us, O Lord, in all our doing." That is to say, *come before* us, or *lead*, or *guide* us.—I observed, in paragraph 193, that some of the verbs, in all these lists, had other meanings besides those expressed by the English words put against them. Such is remarkably the case of this verb *prévenir*, which means (besides to *prevent*) to *apprize*, to *anticipate*, to *be beforehand with*. Bear this in mind; for it will be of great use to you, when you come to translate.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Venir

To come.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je viens	I come
		tu viens	thou comest
		il vient	he comes
		nous venons	we come
		vous venez	you come
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils viennent	they come
		je venais	I came
		tu venais	thou camest
		il venait	he came
		nous venions	we came
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous veniez	you came
		ils venoient	they came
		je vins	I came
		tu vins	thou camest
		il vint	he came
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	nous vinmes	we came
		vous vintes	you came
		ils vinrent	they came
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je viendrai	I shall come
		tu viendras	thou shalt come
		il viendra	he shall come
		nous viendrons	we shall come
		vous viendrez	you shall come
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils viendront	they shall come

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je vienne	I may come
		tu viennes	thou mayest come
		il vienne	he may come
		nous venions	we may come
		vous veniez	you may come
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils viennent	they may come
		je viendrais	I should come
		tu viendrais	thou shouldest come
		il viendrait	he should come
		nous viendrions	we should come
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous viendriez	you should come
		ils viendraient	they should come
		je vinsse	I might come
		tu vinsse	thou mightest come
		il vint	he might come
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	nous vinssions	we might come
		vous vinssiez	you might come
		ils vinssent	they might come

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

viens	come	venons	let us come
qu'il vienne	let him come	venez	come
		qu'ils viennent	let them come

## PARTICIPLES.

venant	coming	venu	come
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**195. FIFTH CONJUGATION.** This consists of verbs ending in *voir*. There are but six of them. It was hardly worth while to make a *conjugation* of these; but, it has been done in the Dictionary which is the most in use, and therefore I do it here. These six verbs are :

S' Apercevoir, to perceive.  
Concevoir, to conceive.  
Devoir, to owe.

Percevoir, to levy, or collect.  
Recevoir, to receive.  
Redevoir, to owe again.

There is the verb *decevoir* ; but it is no longer in use.—*DEVOIR*, the verb conjugated on the opposite page, is a verb of great use. It answers, in many cases, to our *ought*, and in other cases, to our *should*. Our *ought* is, in fact, a part of the verb *to owe*, and is become *ought* by corruption. For instance : “ I *ought* to write to you,” means, that “ I *owe* the performance of the act of writing to you.” The French phrase would be “ Je *dois* vous écrire ;” which is, “ I *owe* to you to write.”—However, you will find more as to this matter, when you get into the Syntax.—Let me, as I have room in this place, remind you again of the great advantage of writing in a *plain hand*. You will write these conjugations down, as before directed ; but if you write in a *slovenly hand*, you will not place the matter so safely in your memory as if you wrote in a plain and neat hand. In short, the best manner of doing a thing is, in the end, also the least troublesome and the **quickest**.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Devoir

To Owe.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je dois	I owe
		tu dois	thou owest
		il doit	he owes
		nous devons	we owe
		vous devez	you owe
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils doivent	they owe
		je devois	I owed
		tu devois	thou owedst
		il devoit	he owed
		nous devions	we owed
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous deviez	you owed
		ils devoient	they owed
		je dus	I owed
		tu dus	thou owedst
		il dut	he owed
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	nous dûmes	we owed
		vous dûtes	you owed
		ils durent	they owed
		je devrai	I shall owe
		tu devras	thou shalt owe
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	il devra	he shall owe
		nous devrons	we shall owe
		vous devrez	you shall owe
		ils devront	they shall owe

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je doive	I may owe
		tu doives	thou mayest owe
		il doive	he may owe
		nous devions	we may owe
		vous deviez	you may owe
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils doivent	they may owe
		je devrois	I should owe
		tu devrois	thou shouldst owe
		il devrait	he should owe
		nous devrions	we should owe
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous devriez	you should owe
		ils devroient	they should owe
		je dusse	I might owe
		tu dusses	thou mightest owe
		il dût	he might owe
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	nous dussions	we might owe
		vous dussiez	you might owe
		ils dussent	they might owe

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

dois	owe	devons	let us owe
qu'il doive	let him owe	devez	owe
		qu'ils doivent	let them owe

## PARTICIPLES.

devoir	owing	dû	owed
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196. SIXTH CONJUGATION. These are the verbs ending in *aire* ; and, there are SEVEN of them as follows :

Contrefaire,	to counterfeit.	Redéfaire,	to undo again.
Défaire,	to undo.	Satisfaire,	to satisfy.
Faire,	to do, or to make.	Surfaire,	to overdo.
Refaire,	to do again.		

You will see at once, that this is, in reality, all *one original verb* ; for, every one of these verbs expresses something about *doing*. To *counterfeit* is *against* to do ; and *satisfy* is *enough* to do, or *enough doing*. DOCTOR JOHNSON, in his Dictionary, says, that our *satisfy* comes from the Latin word *satisfacio* ; but why, Doctor ? Is not our word much more like *satisfaire* ? Is not the *fy* manifestly *fait*, or *faite* ? And, a great number of our words come, in part from this root : as *feat*, *feasible*. The country people in Hampshire commonly say, *it does not fay* ; meaning, it does not *do*, it does not *go on well*. Many of our words, ending in *fy*, come, in part, from this French word *faire* ; and many others which end in *ait* or *eit*. Our word *surfeit* is, indeed, *French*, if the *e* were exchanged for an *a*. *Sur* is *over*, and *feit* (*fait*) is *done*.—But *faire* is, sometimes, *to make* ; we have two verbs here to the one French verb ; and, as our two verbs are words of great use, so is this French verb *faire*, as you will see by-and-by. Therefore, take particular pains in learning to conjugate it.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Faire To Do.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je fais	I do
		tu fais	thou doest
		il fait	he does
		nous faisons	we do
		vous faites	you do
		ils font	they do
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je fesois	I did
		tu fesois	thou didst
		il fesoit	he did
		nous fesions	we did
		vous fesiez	you did
		ils fesoient	they did
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je fis	I did
		tu fis	thou didst
		il fit	he did
		nous fîmes	we did
		vous fîtes	you did
		ils firent	they did
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je ferai	I shall do
		tu feras	thou shalt do
		il fera	he shall do
		nous ferons	we shall do
		vous ferez	you shall do
		ils feront	they shall do

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je fasse	I may do
		tu fasses	thou mayest do
		il fasse	he may do
		nous fassions	we may do
		vous fassiez	you may do
		ils fassent	they may do
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je ferois	I should do
		tu ferois	thou shoulddest do
		il feroit	he should do
		nous ferions	we should do
		vous feriez	you should do
		ils feroient	they should do
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je fisse	I might do
		tu fisses	thou mightest do
		il fît	he might do
		nous fissions	we might do
		vous fissiez	you might do
		ils fissent	they might do

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

fais	do	faisons	let us do
qu' il fasse	let him do	faites	do
		qu' ils fassent	let them do

## PARTICIPLES.

fesant	doing	fait	done.
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**197. SEVENTH CONJUGATION.** These are verbs that end in *aindre*, *eindre*, or *oindre*. The difference in the ending of these makes no difference in the manner of conjugating them. But, before I speak further of this, let me give you a list of the verbs of this conjugation, of which there are only **FIFTEEN**, as follows :

Astreindre,	to bind.	Feindre,	to feign.
Atteindre,	to reach.	Joindre,	to join.
Ceindre,	to gird.	Peindre,	to paint.
Contraindre,	to constrain.	Plaindre,	to pity.
Craindre,	to fear.	Se Plaindre,	to complain.
Enceindre,	to surround.	Restreindre,	to restrain.
Enjoindre,	to enjoin.	Teindre,	to tint, or dye.
Eteindre,	to extinguish.		

There are three or four other verbs of these terminations ; but they are *out of use*, and therefore I will take no further notice of them. Here are *three different* endings, if you go back to the *sixth* letter from the end ; but the *changes* of all three being the same, these verbs are all put into one conjugation. You see what the changes are in *joindre*. Now, suppose you have to conjugate *craindre*. Je *crains*, je *craignois*, je *cragnois*, je *craindrai*, and so forth. And, if you take *feindre*, you say, je *feins*, je *feignois*, je *feignois*, je *feindra*. All this becomes familiar in a very short time ; and especially if you write the conjugations down over and over again, and in a neat and plain hand.

**INFINITIVE MODE.**

**Joindre                      To Join.**

**INDICATIVE MODE.**

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je joins	I join
		tu joins	thou joinest
		il joint	he joins
		nous joignons	we join
		vous joignez	you join
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils joignent	they join
		je joignois	I joined
		tu joignois	thou joinedst
		il joignoit	he joined
		nous joignions	we joined
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous joigniez	you joined
		ils joignoient	they joined
		je joignis	I joined
		tu joignis	thou joinedst
		il joignit	he joined
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	nous joignîmes	we joined
		vous joignîtes	you joined
		ils joignirent	they joined
		je joindrai	I shall join
		tu joindras	thou shalt join
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	il joindra	he shall join
		nous joindrons	we shall join
		vous joindrez	you shall join
		ils joindront	they shall join

**SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.**

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je joigne	I may join
		tu joignes	thou mayest join
		il joigne	he may join
		nous joignions	we may join
		vous joigniez	you may join
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils joignent	they may join
		je joindrois	I should join
		tu joindrois	thou shouldest join
		il joindroit	he should join
		nous joindrions	we should join
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous joindriez	you should join
		ils joindraient	they should join
		je joignisse	I might join
		tu joignisses	thou mightest join
		il joignît	he might join
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	nous joignissions	we might join
		vous joignissiez	you might join
		ils joignissent	they might join

**IMPERATIVE MODE.**

joins	join	joignons	let us join
qu' il joigne	let him join	joignez	join
		qu' ils joignent	let them join

**PARTICIPLES.**

Joignant    joining    |    joint    joined.

**198. EIGHTH CONJUGATION.** The verbs of this conjugation end in *oltre*. They are NINE in number, as follows :

<i>Accroître,</i>	to accrue.	<i>Méconnoître,</i>	to forget.
<i>Connoître,</i>	to know.	<i>Paroltre,</i>	to appear.
<i>Croître,</i>	to grow.	<i>Recroître,</i>	to grow again.
<i>Décroître,</i>	to get less.	<i>Reconnoître,</i>	to recognize.
<i>Disparoltre,</i>	to disappear.		

There are two or three *law-terms*, which I do not notice here. They are of no use, and can only serve to load the memory uselessly. Observe, that in *some books*, these words have not a circumflex accent (^) over the *i*, but merely a single dot, as in other cases. It is, perhaps, of very little consequence ; but I mention it, that you may be prepared for such a case. Many French words formerly had an *s* where they now have none. For instance, people used to write, *maistre*, *estre*, instead of *maître* and *être* ; and the ^ is put to signify the omission of the *s*. It is the same with *croître*, which used to be written *croistre*.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Croître

To Grow.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je crois	I grow
		tu crois	thou growest
		il croit	he grows
		nous croissons	we grow
		vous croissez	you grow
		ils croissent	they grow
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je croissais	I grew
		tu croissais	thou didst grow
		il croissait	he grew
		nous croissions	we grew
		vous croissiez	you grew
		ils croissaient	they grew
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je crus	I grew
		tu crus	thou growedst
		il crut	he grew
		nous crûmes	we grew
		vous crûtes	you grew
		ils crurent	they grew
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je croîtrai	I shall grow
		tu croîtras	thou shalt grow
		il croîtra	he shall grow
		nous croîtrons	we shall grow
		vous croîtrez	you shall grow
		ils croîtront	they shall grow

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je croisse	I may grow
		tu croisses	thou mayest grow
		il croisse	he may grow
		nous croissions	we may grow
		vous croissiez	you may grow
		ils croissent	they may grow
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je croîtrois	I should grow
		tu croîtrois	thou shouldst grow
		il croîtrois	he should grow
		nous croîtrions	we should grow
		vous croîtriez	you should grow
		ils croîtraient	they should grow
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je crusse	I might grow
		tu crusses	thou mightest grow
		il crût	he might grow
		nous crussions	we might grow
		vous crussiez	you might grow
		ils crussent	they might grow

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

crois	grow	croissons	let us grow
qu'il croisse	let him grow	croissez	grow
		qu'ils croissent	let them grow

## PARTICIPLES.

croissant    growing    /    cru    grown.

**199. NINTH CONJUGATION.** This conjugation consists of the verbs that end in *uire*, which are **EIGHTEEN** in number, some of them having a little of *irregularity*, which will be noticed when I have given you the list.

Conduire,	to conduct.	Luire,	to shine, to give light.
Construire,	to construct.	Nuire,	to hurt.
Cuire,	to cook.	Produire,	to produce.
Déduire,	to deduct.	Reconduire,	to reconduct.
Détruire,	to destroy.	Recuire,	to cook again.
Enduire,	to plaster over.	Réduire,	to reduce.
Induire,	to induce.	Reluire,	to glitter, to shh
Introduire,	to introduce.	Séduire,	to seduce.
Instruire,	to instruct.	Traduire,	to translate.

**LUIRE, RELUIRE, and NUIRE**, are irregular in the passive participles, where they drop the *t*; and, instead of *luit*, *reluit*, and *nuit*, they make *lui*, *rel*, and *nui*. The *passive* participle is called by some the *past* participle; and the active participle is, those persons, called the *present* participle. But "I was walking" is certainly not *present*. One of these participles always expresses *action*, and the other does not; therefore I use the words *active* and *passive*, as applied to these participles respective

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Cuire | To Cook.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je cuis	I cook
		tu cuis	thou cookest
		il cuit	he cooks
		nous cuissons	we cook
		vous cuisinez	you cook
		ils cuisent	they cook
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je cuisais	I cooked
		tu cuisais	thou cookedst
		il cuisait	he cooked
		nous cuisions	we cooked
		vous cuisiez	you cooked
		ils cuisaient	they cooked
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je cuisais	I cooked
		tu cuisais	thou cookedst
		il cuisait	he cooked
		nous cuisions	we cooked
		vous cuisiez	you cooked
		ils cuisaient	they cooked
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je cuirai	I shall cook
		tu cuiras	thou shalt cook
		il cuira	he shall cook
		nous cuirons	we shall cook
		vous cuirez	you shall cook
		ils cuiront	they shall cook

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je cuise	I may cook
		tu cuises	thou mayest cook
		il cuise	he may cook
		nous cuisions	we may cook
		vous cuisiez	you may cook
		ils cuisent	they may cook
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je cuirais	I should cook
		tu cuirais	thou shouldst cook
		il cuirait	he should cook
		nous cuirions	we should cook
		vous cuiriez	you should cook
		ils cuiraient	they should cook
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je cuisisse	I might cook
		tu cuisisses	thou mightest cook
		il cuisît	he might cook
		nous cuisissions	we might cook
		vous cuisissiez	you might cook
		ils cuisissent	they might cook

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

cuis	cook	cuisons	let us cook
cuisez	let him cook	cuisez	cook
cu' il cuise		qu' ils cuisent	let them cook

## PARTICIPLES.

cuisant    cooking    |    cuit    cooked.

**200. TENTH CONJUGATION.** These are verbs which end in *endre* and *ondre*. There are TWENTY-THREE of them, as follows :

<b>Attendre,</b>	to wait for.	<b>Perdre,</b>	to lose.
<b>Condescendre,</b>	to condescend.	<b>Pondre,</b>	to lay eggs.
<b>Confondre,</b>	to confound.	<b>Prétendre,</b>	to pretend.
<b>Correspondre,</b>	to correspond.	<b>Refondre,</b>	to recast.
<b>Descendre,</b>	to descend.	<b>Rendre,</b>	to render.
<b>Entendre,</b>	to hear.	<b>Répandre,</b>	to spread.
<b>Étendre,</b>	to extend.	<b>Répondre,</b>	to answer.
<b>Fendre,</b>	to split.	<b>Tendre,</b>	to bend.
<b>Fondre,</b>	to melt.	<b>Tondre,</b>	to shear.
<b>Mordre,</b>	to bite.	<b>Tordre,</b>	to twist.
<b>Morfondre,</b>	to give cold to.	<b>Vendre,</b>	to sell.
<b>Pendre,</b>	to hang.		

The remarks made in paragraph 197, relative to the effect of the three different endings of the verbs of the seventh conjugation, apply to this conjugation. If it were **TONDRE** instead of *vendre*, I should say *je tonds*, *je tondois*, and so on; and, in the principles, I should say, *tondant* and *tondu*, instead of *vendant* and *vendu*. So it is, of course, in the other cases; and, knowing how to conjugate one verb of any conjugation, you know how to conjugate all the others, make the changes in, all the other verbs, of the tenth conjugation.—But there are three verbs which are deemed to be of this conjugation, and which end in *rdre*: *perdre*, *mordre*, *tordre*. They are conjugated in the same manner as *vendre*. They are therefore, inserted in the above list.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Vendre

To Sell.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je vends	I sell
		tu vends	thou sellest
		il vend	he sells
		nous vendons	we sell
		vous vendez	you sell
		ils vendent	they sell
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je vendais	I sold
		tu vendais	thou sellest
		il vendait	he sold
		nous vendions	we sold
		vous vendiez	you sold
		ils vendaient	they sold
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je vendis	I sold
		tu vendis	thou soldest
		il vendit	he sold
		nous vendîmes	we sold
		vous vendîtes	you sold
		ils vendirent	they sold
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je vendrai	I shall sell
		tu vendras	thou shalt sell
		il vendra	he shall sell
		nous vendrons	we shall sell
		vous vendrez	you shall sell
		ils vendront	they shall sell

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je vende	I may sell
		tu vendes	thou mayest sell
		il vende	he may sell
		nous vendions	we may sell
		vous vendiez	you may sell
		ils vendent	they may sell
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je vendrais	I should sell
		tu vendrais	thou shouldest sell
		il vendrait	he should sell
		nous vendrions	we should sell
		vous vendriez	you should sell
		ils vendraient	they should sell
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je vendisse	I might sell
		tu vendisses	thou mightest sell
		il vendit	he might sell
		nous vendissions	we might sell
		vous vendissiez	you might sell
		ils vendissent	they might sell

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

vends	sell	vendons	let us sell
qu' il vende	let him sell	vendez	sell
		qu' ils vendent	let them sell

## PARTICIPLES.

vendant    selling    /    vendu    sold.



**201. IRREGULAR VERBS.**—This is the **Task**; and it is no trifling one.—Having done the ten conjugations of **Regular Verbs** I have to treat of the *Irregulars*, of which I have spoken before, especially in paragraph 122. In paragraph 191, I observed, that there were some *Irregulars* every one of the conjugations; that is to say, there were some verbs ending in *er*, some in *ir*, in all the rest, that were irregular; or, in other words, that did not undergo the same variation as the regular ones. Let us take a proof in **TUER** (to kill) **ALLER** (to go.)

		INFINITIVE MODE.	
		to kill.	to go.
		INDICATIVE MODE.	
<i>Present Time.</i>	je tue,	I kill.	nous tuons, we kill
	je vais,	I go.	nous allons, we go.
	tu tues,	thou killest.	vous tuez, you kill
	tu vas,	thou goest.	vous allez, you go
	il tue,	he kills.	ils tuent, they kill
	il va,	he goes.	ils vont, they go

You see here how different is the manner of making the changes in **ALLER** from that of making them in **TUER**. Indeed you see, in some of the persons, one letter of the word **ALLER** left, as in *vais vont*. Therefore seeing the changes in it not made in the same way that they are in **TUER**, which is a regular verb, **ALLER** is called an *Irregular verb*. As I observed to you before, there are some of these of every one of the conjugations; but I shall now give a list of the whole of the *Irregulars* placed in *alphabetical* order. Afterwards I shall conjugate them fully; but, first of all, I shall give a list of them. There are, however, a few other marks to make in the way of preface to these *Irregulars*. There are, as you will see, **THIRTY-THREE** *Irregulars* in the list; but, many of them have been *derived* from them; *écrire*, to write; *souscrire*, to subscribe (or *underwrite*); and so on. There are some, even in the *alphabetical* list of *regulars*, which are *defective*; that is to say, which are not used except in *some parts* of them; that is, in part of the *modes*, or part of the *times*. There

defective parts will be pointed out in the conjugations ; but, the sooner you are aware of the circumstance the better. I shall now give the list of *Irregulars*, with those verbs that are derived from them. This list you will first read all through without looking at the conjugations. Then you are to go over the list again, and, you are to stop at each verb and turn to its conjugation, and go through that. Then go to the next verb ; and, so on, until you have, in this way, gone through the whole list. The conjugations will be easily referred to, because, besides the Alphabetical order, they will be numbered as paragraphs, and I shall refer to them as such. I do not put *avoir* and *être* in this list ; because, though they are *irregulars*, all things relating to them are fully explained elsewhere.

**ACQUÉRIR:** *To Acquire.*—The following are conjugated in the same manner : *conquérir, enquerir, requérir, and quérir.* These are all *defective* verbs ; that is, they are used in only part of their forms. Practice will soon teach you this.—See conjugation, Paragraph 202.

**ALLER:** *To Go.*—This is the only irregular verb of the first conjugation.—There is indeed, *Puer* ; but it is irregular in only the three persons singular of the present of the indicative, and, besides, it is a word almost wholly out of use.—See Paragraph 203.

**S'ASSEOIR:** *To Sit down.*—It has other meanings ; but this you will learn from the *Dictionary* ; and, besides, care will be taken to introduce words like this into the exercises ; so that, by the time that you have gone through the Grammar and the Exercises, you will be well acquainted with these distinctions.—*S'asseoir* is conjugated in the same way, and also *seoir* ; but it is defective ; and neither is much in use.—See Paragraph 204.

**BATTRE:** *To Beat.*—The verbs *abattre* to beat, or put down ; *combattre, se débattre, s'ébattre,*

*rabattre*, and *rebattre*, are all conjugated *battre*. They all, indeed, belong to that v  
—See Paragraph 205.

**BOIRE**: *To Drink*.—See Paragraph 206.

**BOUILLIR**: *To Boil*.—This verb is, in Fre always *neuter*. The French do not use we do. They use it only in the third per as, *il bout*, it boils. They do not say, *I bo cabbage*; but, *je fais bouillir le chou*; that *make the cabbage boil*. The verb *rebou* means, to *boil again*, and it is, of course, conjugated like *bouillir*.—See Paragraph 207.

**CONCLURE**: *To Conclude*.—*Exclure* is conjugated in the same way, except that, in the active Participle, we write *exclus* for the masculine, and *excluse*, or *exclue*, for the feminine. See Paragraph 208.

**CONVAINCRE**: *To Convince*.—*Vaincre*, to conquer, is conjugated in the same way; but little used.—See Paragraph 209.

**COUDRE**: *To Sew*.—It is hardly necessary to say, that *découdre*, to unsew, and *recoudre*, to sew again, are conjugated in the same way as *coudre*.—See Paragraph 210.

**COURIR**: *To Run*.—*Accourir*, *concourir*, *discourir*, *parcourir*, *recourir*, *seccourir* are conjugated like *courir*. They all come from it, and belong to it.—See Paragraph 211.

**CROIRE**: *To Believe*.—There is the verb *croire*; but it is used only in the infinitive, and must have *faire* with it; and then it answers to our *make believe*.—See Paragraph 212.

**CUEILLIR**: *To Gather*.—*Recueillir*, to gather together, is conjugated like *cueillir*. *Accueillir*, to welcome, is, when used, conjugated in the same way; but it is hardly ever used.—See Paragraph 213.

**DIRE**: *To Say*.—This verb also means *to say*. There are eight other verbs, which are conjugated like *Dire*; namely, *contredire*, *se dédire*, *maudire*, *interdire*, *prédire*, *re*

*confire*. But, observe, all of them, except *redire*, make, in the second person plural of the present time and indicative mode, *disez* instead of *dites*. Observe also, that *maudire* takes the double *s*, where there are other letters coming after the *s*: as; je *maudis*, I curse; je *maudissois*, I cursed.—See Paragraph 214.

**DORMIR: To Sleep.**—The same manner of conjugating is applied to *endormir*, *s'endormir*, *redormir*, and *se rendormir*.—See Paragraph 215.

**ECRIRE: To Write.**—Eight others are conjugated like *écrire*; namely, *décrire*, *inscrire*, *prescrire*, *proscrire*, *récrire*, *souscrire*, *transcrire*, *circonscrire*. They are all, in fact, the same word, with a preposition put before each; and they mean, to write *of*, to write *in*, to write *against*, to write *again*, to write *under*, to write *in another place*, to write *round about*. Besides these, there is the verb *frire*, to fry, conjugated like *écrire*; but *frire* is seldom used except in the infinitive, like *bouillir*. The French say, to *make to boil* and to *make to fry*; as je *fais frire*; and not je *fris*. They may say the latter; but, they do not.—See Paragraph 216.

**FUIR: To Flee.**—There is *s'enfuir*, which means *fleeing from it*, *from this place*, *from that place*, *from something*. This verb is seldom, or never used in the past perfect times.—See Paragraph 217.

**HAIR: To Hate.**—This verb, like the last, is never used in the past perfect times.—See Paragraph 218.

**LIRE: To Read.**—*Elire* and *relire*, *réélire*, are conjugated in the same manner. There are two other verbs, *circoncire* and *suffire*, to *circumcise* and to *suffice*, which are also conjugated like *lire*, except that, in its passive participle, the first makes *circoncis*, and the last *suffi*; and, also except that, in the past perfect times, they make, je *circoncis*, je *suffis*; je *circoncisse*, je *suffisse*; and so on; and not *circon-*

*cus, circonscuse*; and so forth.—See Paragraph 219.

**METTRE**: *To Put*.—This is a verb of great use. The following eleven, all proceeding from it, are conjugated in the same way: *admettre, commettre, démettre, omettre, s'entremettre, permettre, promettre, remettre, compromettre, soumettre, transmettre*.—See Paragraph 220.

**MOUDRE**: *To Grind*.—*Emoudre* and *remoudre* are conjugated like *moudre*.—See Paragraph 221.

**MOURIR**: *To Die*.—See Paragraph 222.

**MOUVOIR**: *To Move*.—Not much used. *Emouvoir, démouvoir, promouvoir, apparoir, choquer, échoir, déchoir*, are used merely in the infinitive. They are technical terms, and very rarely used. *Mouvoir* itself is nearly as little used. The verb that is generally made use of when we make use of *move*, is the regular *remuer*.—See Paragraph 223.

**NAÎTRE**: *To be born*.—*Renâître*, and *Paître* are conjugated like *naître*; but they have no participle, and no past perfect times. But, *paître* has *repu* for its passive participle, and has, in the past perfect times, *repus*, *repus*, and so forth.—See Paragraph 224.

**OUVRIR**: *To Open*.—Conjugated in the same manner are *souffrir, offrir, mésoffrir, couvrir, découvrir*, and *recouvrir*.—See Paragraph 225.

**PLAIRE**: *To Please*.—There are three others which are conjugated in the same manner: *déplaître, taire*, and *complaître*.—See Paragraph 226.

**POUVOIR**: *To be Able*; or *To have Power*.—This is a word of great use. It sometimes supplies the place of our *can* and *could* and *may* and *might*. This is one of the most important words in the French language; and you ought to know every part of it as well as you know your own name.—See Paragraph 227.

**PRENDRE**: *To Take*.—The verbs, which a

derived from this, are conjugated like it. They are, *apprendre, désapprendre, comprendre, entreprendre, se méprendre, reprendre*, and *surprendre*.—See Paragraph 228.

**RESOUDRE:** *To Resolve*.—*Absoudre* and *dissoudre* follow the same manner of conjugation. They are not, however, in use in the past perfect times, and their passive participles are *absous* and *dissous*. *Soudre* is used only in the infinitive.—See Paragraph 229.

**REJETIR:** *To Invest*.—*Vêtir* and *Oùir* follow, as far as they go, the conjugation of *revêtir*; but the first is used only in the infinitive, and the latter only in the passive participle.—See Paragraph 230.

**RIRE:** *To Laugh*.—To smile is *sourire*, which is conjugated in the same way as *rire*.—See Paragraph 231.

**ROMPRE:** *To Break*.—*Corrompre* and *interrompre* are conjugated like *rompre*.—See Paragraph 232.

**SAVOIR:** *To Know*.—This is a word of great use in the French language.—See Paragraph 233.

**SUIVRE:** *To Follow*.—*Poursuivre* and *S'ensuire* are conjugated in the same way.—See Paragraph 234.

**TRAIRE:** *To Milk*.—It means also, to *draw*; and the French say *tirer une vache* (draw a cow) oftener than they say *traire une vache*. *Abstraire, distraire, extraire, soustraire*, and *retraire*, are, as far as they go, conjugated in the same manner. But, they are all defective more or less. The first four have only the infinitive, and the present and future of the singular, in use. The last has, like *traire*, no past perfect times in use.—See Paragraph 235.

**TRESSAILLIR:** *To Burst out*.—*Saillir* means to *rush out*, or *break out*. Both verbs are defective. They are very seldom used. The same may be said of *Assaillir*.—See Paragraph 236.

**VALOIR:** *To be worth*.—*Revaloir*, and *preva-*

*loir* are conjugated like *valoir*, except that the latter makes, *prévale*, and not *prévaille* in the present time of the Subjunctive Mode.—See Paragraph 237.

**VIVRE:** *To Live*.—*Revivre* and *survivre* are conjugated like *vivre*.—See Paragraph 238.

**VOIR:** *To see*.—There are conjugated in the same manner as *voir* these four: *entrevoir*, *revoir*, *pouvoir*, and *prévoir*; but, observe, the two latter have their future and their past in perfect of the Subjunctive in *oirai*, *oirois*, and so forth; and not in *errai*, *errois*, like *voir*. Besides this, *pouvoir* has its past perfects *eus* and *usse*, and not in *is* and *isse*.—See Paragraph 239.

**VOULOIR:** *To be willing*.—This verb, like *pouvoir*, is of vast importance in the French language. It is used very frequently where *will* occurs. It answers also to our verb *wish*.—See Paragraph 240.

Thus ends the list of Irregular Verbs. There remain a few *defectives*, just to notice, but not dwell long upon. *Braire*, *férir*, *bruire*, *faillir*, *éclore*, *éclorre*, *gésir*, *isser*, *tistre*. These are a verbs; but too defective to merit any attempt at conjugating them. They are become a sort of *adjectives*. At any rate, when they occur, which very seldom, the Dictionary will explain the meaning.—Now follow, in Alphabetical order, the full conjugations of the Irregulars according to the above list. I look upon the conjugation of each of the verbs as forming a *paragraph*, and I number the conjugations accordingly. Mind, there is, according to different authors, some little difference in the manner of writing some of the times of some of the verbs. *VENIR*, for example, some write *vinse* instead of *vinse*, in the past perfect of the subjunctive. Again, in *couvre*, some write *cous*, and others *coud*. But, these are, in fact, of no more consequence than is our writing of *public* with or without a *k*.

**Paragraph.]**

**INFINITIVE MODE.**

**Acquérir      To Acquire.**

**INDICATIVE MODE.**

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	j'acquiers	I acquire
		tu acquiers	thou acquirest
		il acquiert	he acquires
		nous acquérons	we acquire
		vous acquérez	you acquire
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils acquièrent	they acquire
		j'acquérois	I acquired
		tu acquérois	thou acquiredst
		il acquéroit	he acquired
		nous acquérions	we acquired
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous acquériez	you acquired
		ils acquéroient	they acquired
		j'acquis	I acquired
		tu acquis	thou acquiredst
		il acquit	he acquired
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	nous acquîmes	we acquired
		vous acquîtes	you acquired
		ils acquîrent	they acquired
		j'acquerrai	I shall acquire
		tu acquerras	thou shalt acquire
	{	il acquerra	he shall acquire
		nous acquerrons	we shall acquire
		vous acquerez	you shall acquire
		ils acquerront	they shall acquire

**SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.**

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	j'acquière	I may acquire
		tu acquières	thou mayest acquire
		il acquière	he may acquire
		nous acquèrions	we may acquire
		vous acquèriez	you may acquire
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils acquièrent	they may acquire
		j'acquerrois	I should acquire
		tu acquerrois	thou shoulddest acquire
		il acquerroit	he should acquire
		nous acquerrions	we should acquire
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous acquèriez	you should acquire
		ils acquerroient	they should acquire
		j'acquiesse	I might acquire
		tu acquiesse	thou mightest acquire
		il acquît	he might acquire
	{	nous acquissions	we might acquire
		vous acquissiez	you might acquire
		ils acquissent	they might acquire

**IMPERATIVE MODE.**

acquiers	acquire	acquérons	let us acquire
qu'il acquière	let him acquire	acquérez	acquire
		qu'ils acquièrent	let them acquire

**PARTICIPLES.**

acquérant	acquiring	acquis	acquired.
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203 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Aller

To Go.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je vais	I go
		tu vas	thou goest
		il va	he goes
		nous allons	we go
		vous allez	you go
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils vont	they go
		j'allois	I went
		tu allois	thou wentest
		il alloit	he went
		nous allions	we went
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous alliez	you went
		ils alloient	they went
		j'allai	I went
		tu allas	thou wentest
		il alla	he went
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	nous allâmes	we went
		vous allâtes	you went
		ils allèrent	they went
		j'irai	I shall go
		tu iras	thou shalt go
	{	il ira	he shall go
		nous irons	we shall go
		vous irez	you shall go
		ils iront	they shall go

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	j'aïlle	I may go
		tu aïlles	thou mayest go
		il aïlle	he may go
		nous allions	we may go
		vous alliez	you may go
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils aïllent	they may go
		j'irois	I should go
		tu irois	thou shoulddest go
		il iroit	he should go
		nous irions	we should go
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous iriez	you should go
		ils iroient	they should go
		j'allasse	I might go
		tu allasses	thou mightest go
		il allât	he might go
	{	nous allussions	we might go
		vous allussiez	you might go
		ils allussent	they might go

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

va	go	allons	let us go
qu'il aïlle	let him go	allez	go
		qu'ils aïllent	let them go

## PARTICIPLES.

allant    going    |    allé    gone.

204 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

S'Asscoir

To Sit down.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je m' assieds	I sit
		tu t' assieds	thou sittest
		il s' assied	he sits
		nous nous asseyons	we sit
		vous vous asseyez	you sit
		ils s' asseyent	they sit
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je m' asseyois	I sat
		tu t' asseyois	thou satest
		il s' asseyoit	he sat
		nous nous asseyions	we sat
		vous vout asseyiez	you sat
		ils s' asseyoient	they sat
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je m' assis	I sat
		tu t' assis	thou satest
		il s' assit	he sat
		nous nous assimes	we sat
		vous vous assites	you sat
		ils s' assirent	they sat
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je m' asseyerai	I shall sit
		tu t' asseyeras	thou shalt sit
		il s' asseyera	he shall sit
		nous nous asseyerons	we shall sit
		vous vous asseyerez	you shall sit
		ils s' asseyeront	they shall sit

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je m' asseye	I may sit
		tu t' asseyes	thou mayest sit
		il s' asseye	he may sit
		nous nous asseyions	we may sit
		vous vous asseyiez	you may sit
		ils s' asseyent	they may sit
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je m' asseyerois	I should sit
		tu t' asseyerois	thou shouldst sit
		il s' asseyeroit	he should sit
		nous nous asseyerions	we should sit
		vous vous asseyeriez	you should sit
		ils s' asseyeroient	they should sit
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je m' assisse	I might sit
		tu t' assisses	thou mightest sit
		il s' assit	he might sit
		nous nous assissions	we might sit
		vous vous assissiez	you might sit
		ils s' assissent	they might sit

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

assieds-toi	sit	asseyons-nous	let us sit
qu' il s' asseye	let him sit	asseyez-vous	sit
		qu' ils s' asseyent	let them sit

## PARTIPILES.

s' asseyant	sitting	assis	sat.
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205 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Battre

To Beat.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je bats	I beat
		tu bats	thou beatest
		il bat	he beats
		nous battons	we beat
		vous battez	you beat
		ils battent	they beat
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je battois	I beat
		tu battois	thou beatest
		il battoit	he beat
		nous battions	we beat
		vous battiez	you beat
		ils battaient	they beat
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je battis	I beat
		tu battis	thou beatest
		il battit	he beat
		nous battîmes	we beat
		vous battîtes	you beat
		ils battirent	they beat
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je battrai	I shall beat
		tu battras	thou shalt beat
		il battrà	he shall beat
		nous battrons	we shall beat
		vous battriez	you shall beat
		ils battront	they shall beat

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je batte	I may beat
		tu battes	thou mayest beat
		il batte	he may beat
		nous battions	we may beat
		vous battiez	you may beat
		ils battent	they may beat
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je battrois	I should beat
		tu battrois	thou shoulddest beat
		il battroit	he should beat
		nous battrions	we should beat
		vous battriez	you should beat
		ils battraient	they should beat
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je battisse	I might beat
		tu battisses	thou mightest beat
		il battît	he might beat
		nous battissions	we might beat
		vous battissiez	you might beat
		ils battissent	they might beat

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

bats	beat	battens	let us beat
qu' il batte	let him beat	battez	beat
		qu' ils battent	let them beat

## PARTICIPLES.

battant	beating	battu	beat
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206 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Boire To Drink.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je bois	I drink
		tu bois	thou drinkest
		il boit	he drinks
		nous buvons	we drink
		vous buvez	you drink
		ils boivent	they drink
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je buvois	I drank
		tu buvois	thou drankest
		il buvoit	he drank
		nous buvions	we drank
		vous buviez	you drank
		ils buvoient	they drank
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je bus	I drank
		tu bus	thou drankest
		il but	he drank
		nous bûmes	we drank
		vous bûtes	you drank
		ils burent	they drank
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je boirai	I shall drink
		tu boiras	thou shalt drink
		il boira	he shall drink
		nous boirons	we shall drink
		vous boirez	you shall drink
		ils boiroient	they shall drink

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je boive	I may drink
		tu boives	thou mayest drink
		il boive	he may drink
		nous buvions	we may drink
		vous buviez	you may drink
		ils boivent	they may drink
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je boirois	I should drink
		tu boirois	thou shouldest drink
		il boiroit	he should drink
		nous boirions	we should drink
		vous boiriez	you should drink
		ils boiroient	they should drink
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je busse	I might drink
		tu busse	thou mightest drink
		il bût	he might drink
		nous bussions	we might drink
		vous bussiez	you might drink
		ils bussent	they might drink

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

bois	drink	buvons	let us drink
qu' il boive	let him drink	buvez	drink
		qu'ils boivent	let them drink

## PARTICIPLES.

buvant	drinking		bu	drunk.
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307 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Bouillir

To Boil.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je bous	I boil
		tu bous	thou bollest
		il bout	he boils
		nous bouillons	we boil
		vous bouillez	you boil
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils bouillent	they boil
		je bouillois	I boiled
		tu bouillois	thou boiledst
		il bouilloit	he boiled
		nous bouillions	we boiled
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous bouilliez	you boiled
		ils bouilloient	they boiled
		je bouillis	I boiled
		tu bouillis	thou boiledst
		il bouillit	he boiled
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	nous bouillîmes	we boiled
		vous bouillîtes	you boiled
		ils bouillirent	they boiled
		je bouillirai	I shall boil
		tu bouilliras	thou shalt boil
	{	il bouillira	he shall boil
		nous bouillirons	we shall boil
		vous bouillirez	you shall boil
		ils bouilliront	they shall boil

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je bouille	I may boil
		tu bouilles	thou mayest boil
		il bouille	he may boil
		nous bouillions	we may boil
		vous bouilliez	you may boil
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils bouillent	they may boil
		je bouillirois	I should boil
		tu bouillirois	thou shouldest boil
		il bouilliroit	he should boil
		nous bouillirions	we should boil
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous bouilliriez	you should boil
		ils bouilliroient	they should boil
		je bouillisse	I might boil
		tu bouillisses	thou mightest boil
		il bouillît	he might boil
	{	nous bouillissions	we might boil
		vous bouillissiez	you might boil
		ils bouillissent	they might boil

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

bous	boil	bouillons	let us b
qu' il bouille	let him boil	bouillez	boil
		qu' ils bouillent	let ther

## PARTICIPLES.

bouillant	boiling	bouilli	boiled.
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208 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Conclude

To Conclude.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je conclus	I conclude
		tu conclus	thou concludest
		il conclut	he concludes
		nous concluons	we conclude
		vous concluez	you conclude
		ils concluent	they conclude
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je conclusois	I concluded
		tu conclusois	thou concludedst
		il concluait	he concluded
		nous concluions	we concluded
		vous concluez	you concluded
		ils concluient	they concluded
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je conclus	I concluded
		tu conclus	thou concludedst
		il conclut	he concluded
		nous conclûmes	we concluded
		vous conclûtes	you concluded
		ils conclurent	they concluded
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je conclurai	I shall conclude
		tu concluras	thou shalt conclude
		il conclura	he shall conclude
		nous conclurons	we shall conclude
		vous conclurez	you shall conclude
		ils concluront	they shall conclude

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je conclue	I may conclude
		tu conclues	thou mayest conclude
		il conclue	he may conclude
		nous concluions	we may conclude
		vous concluez	you may conclude
		ils concluent	they may conclude
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je conclurois	I should conclude
		tu conclurois	thou shouldst conclude
		il concluroit	he should conclude
		nous conclurions	we should conclude
		vous concluriez	you should conclude
		ils concluroient	they should conclude
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je conclusse	I might conclude
		tu conclusses	thou mightest conclude
		il conclût	he might conclude
		nous conclussions	we might conclude
		vous conclussiez	you might conclude
		ils conclussent	they might conclude

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

conclus	conclude	concluons	let us conclude
qu' il conclue	let him conclude	concluez	conclude
		qu' ils concluent	let them conclude

## PARTICIPLES.

concluant concluding | conclu concluded.

209 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Convaincre

To Convince.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je convaincs	I convince
		tu convaincs	thou convincest
		il convainc	he convinces
		nous convainquons	we convince
		vous convainquez	you convince
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils convainquent	they convince
		je convainquois	I convinced
		tu convainquois	thou convincedst
		il convainquoit	he convinced
		nous convainquions	we convinced
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous convainquiez	you convinced
		ils convainquoient	they convinced
		je convainquis	I convinced
		tu convainquis	thou convincedst
		il convainquit	he convinced
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	nous convainquîmes	we convinced
		vous convainquîtes	you convinced
		ils convainquirent	they convinced
		je convaincrâi	I shall convince
		tu convaincras	thou shalt convince
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	il convaincra	he shall convince
		nous convaincrons	we shall convince
		vous convaincrez	you shall convince
		ils convaincront	they shall convince

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je convainque	I may convince
		tu convainques	thou mayest convince
		il convainque	he may convince
		nous convainquions	we may convince
		vous convainquiez	you may convince
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils convainquent	they may convince
		je convaincrais	I should convince
		tu convaincrais	thou shouldst convince
		il convaincrait	he should convince
		nous convaincussions	we should convince
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous convainquissiez	you should convince
		ils convaincraient	they should convince
		je convainquisse	I might convince
		tu convainquisses	thou mightest convince
		il convainquît	he might convince
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	nous convainquissions	we might convince
		vous convainquissiez	you might convince
		ils convainquissent	they might convince

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

convaincs	convince	convainquons	let us convince
qu'il convainque	let him convince	convainquez	convince
		qu'ils convainquent	let them convince

## PARTICIPLES.

convainquant convincing | convaincu convinced.

210 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Coudre

To Sew.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je couds	I sew
		tu couds	thou sewest
		il coud	he sews
		nous cousons	we sew
		vous cousez	you sew
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils cousent	they sew
		je cousois	I sewed
		tu cousois	thou sewedst
		il cousoit	he sewed
		nous cousions	we sewed
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous cousiez	you sewed
		ils cousoient	they sewed
		je cousis	I sewed
		tu cousis	thou sewedst
		il cousit	he sewed
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	nous cousîmes	we sewed
		vous cousîtes	you sewed
		ils cousirent	they sewed
		jeoudrai	I shall sew
		tuoudras	thou shalt sew
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	iloudra	he shall sew
		nousoudrons	we shall sew
		vousoudrez	you shall sew
		ilsoudront	they shall sew

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je couse	I may sew
		tu couses	thou mayest sew
		il couse	he may sew
		nous cousions	we may sew
		vous cousiez	you may sew
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils cousent	they may sew
		jeoudrois	I should sew
		tuoudrois	thou shoulddest sew
		iloudroit	he should sew
		nousoudrions	we should sew
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vousoudriez	you should sew
		ilsoudroient	they should sew
		jeoudsisse	I might sew
		tuoudsisses	thou mightest sew
		iloudsît	he might sew
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	nousoudissions	we might sew
		vousoudissiez	you might sew
		ilsoudissent	they might sew

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

couds	sew	cousons	let us sew
qu'il couse	let him sew	cousez	sew
		qu'ils cousent	let them sew

## PARTICIPLES.

cousant	sewing	cousu	sewed.
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211 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Courir

To Run

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je cours	I run
		tu cours	thou runest
		il court	he runs
		nous courons	we run
		vous courez	you run
		ils courent	they run

<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je courais	I ran
		tu courais	thou ranest
		il courait	he ran
		nous courions	we ran
		vous couriez	you ran
		ils couraient	they ran

<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je courus	I ran
		tu courus	thou ranest
		il courut	he ran
		nous courûmes	we ran
		vous courûtes	you ran
		ils coururent	they ran

<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je courrai	I shall run
		tu courras	thou shalt run
		il courra	he shall run
		nous courrons	we shall run
		vous courrez	you shall run
		ils courront	they shall run

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je coure	I may run
		tu coures	thou mayest run
		il coure	he may run
		nous courions	we may run
		vous couriez	you may run
		ils courient	they may run

<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je courrais	I should run
		tu courrais	thou shouldest run
		il courrait	he should run
		nous courrions	we should run
		vous courriez	you should run
		ils courroient	they should run

<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je courusse	I might run
		tu courusses	thou mightest run
		il courût	he might run
		nous courussions	we might run
		vous courussiez	you might run
		ils courussent	they might run

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

cours	run	courons	let us run
qu'il coure	let him run	courez	run
		qu'ils courent	let them run

## PARTICIPLES.

courant	running	couru	ran.
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225 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Croire

To Believe.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je crois	I believe
		tu crois	thou believest
		il croit	he believes
		nous croyons	we believe
		vous croyez	you believe
		ils croient	they believe
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je croyais	I believed
		tu croyais	thou believedst
		il croyoit	he believed
		nous croyions	we believed
		vous croyiez	you believed
		ils croyoient	they believed
<i>Past Perfect Time</i>	{	je crus	I believed
		tu crus	thou believedst
		il crut	he believed
		nous crûmes	we believed
		vous crûtes	you believed
		ils crurent	they believed
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je croirai	I shall believe
		tu croiras	thou shalt believe
		il croira	he shall believe
		nous croirons	we shall believe
		vous croirez	you shall believe
		ils croiront	they shall believe

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time</i>	{	je croye	may believe
		tu croyes	thou mayest believe
		il croye	he may believe
		nous croyions	we may believe
		vous croyiez	you may believe
		ils croient	they may believe
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je croirois	I should believe
		tu croirois	thou shouldst believe
		il croiroit	he should believe
		nous croirions	we should believe
		vous croiriez	you should believe
		ils croiroient	they should believe
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je crusse	I might believe
		tu crusses	thou mightest believe
		il crût	he might believe
		nous crussions	we might believe
		vous crussiez	you might believe
		ils crussent	they might believe

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

unnn

crois	believe	croyons	let us believe
qu'il croye	let him believe	croyez	believe
		qu'ils croient	let them believe

## PARTICIPLES.

croyant	believing	cro	believed.
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213 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Cueillir      To Gather.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je cueille	I gather
		tu cueilles	thou gatherest
		il cueille	he gathers
		nous cueillons	we gather
		vous cueillez	you gather
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils cueillent	they gather
		je cueillois	I gathered
		tu cueillois	thou gatheredst
		il cueilloit	he gathered
		nous cueillions	we gathered
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous cueilliez	you gathered
		ils cueilloient	they gathered
		je cueillis	I gathered
		tu cueillis	thou gatheredst
		il cueillit	he gathered
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	nous cueillirons	we gathered
		vous cueillirez	you gathered
		ils cueilliront	they gathered
		je cueillerai	I shall gather
		tu cueilleras	thou shalt gather
	{	il cueillera	he shall gather
		nous cueillerons	we shall gather
		vous cueillerez	you shall gather
		ils cueilleront	they shall gather

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je cueille	I may gather
		tu cueilles	thou mayest gather
		il cueille	he may gather
		nous cueillions	we may gather
		vous cueilliez	you may gather
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils cueillent	they may gather
		je cueillerois	I should gather
		tu cueillerois	thou shouldest gather
		il cueilleroit	he should gather
		nous cueillerions	we should gather
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous cueilleriez	you should gather
		ils cueilleroient	they should gather
		je cueillisse	I might gather
		tu cueillisses	thou mightest gather
		il cueillit	he might gather
	{	nous cueillions	we might gather
		vous cueillissiez	you might gather
		ils cueillissent	they might gather

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

cueilles	gather	cueillons	let us gather
qu'il cueille	let him gather	cueillez	gather
		qu'ils cueillent	let them gather

## PARTICIPLES.

cueillant	gathering	cueilli	gathered.
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**24 Paragraph.]**

**INFINITIVE MODE.**

**Dire**

**To Say.**

**INDICATIVE MODE.**

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je dis	I say
		tu dis	thou sayest
		il dit	he says
		nous disons	we say
		vous dites	you say
		ils disent	they say
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je disois	I said
		tu disois	thou saidst
		il disoit	he said
		nous disions	we said
		vous disiez	you said
		ils disoient	they said
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je dis	I said
		tu dis	thou saidst
		il dit	he said
		nous dîmes	we said
		vous dîtes	you said
		ils dirent	they said
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je dirai	I shall say
		tu diras	thou shalt say
		il dira	he shall say
		nous dirons	we shall say
		vous direz	you shall say
		ils diront	they shall say

**SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.**

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je dise	I may say
		tu dises	thou mayest say
		il dise	he may say
		nous disions	we may say
		vous disiez	you may say
		ils disent	they may say
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je dirois	I should say
		tu dirois	thou shouldst say
		il diroit	he should say
		nous dirions	we should say
		vous diriez	you should say
		ils diroient	they should say
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je disse	I might say
		tu disses	thou mightest say
		il dit	he might say
		nous dissions	we might say
		vous dissiez	you might say
		ils disaient	they might say

**IMPERATIVE MODE.**

dis	say	disons	let us say
qu' il dise	let him say	dites	say
		qu'ils disent	let them say

**PARTICIPLES.**

disant	saying	dit	said.
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## 215 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Dormir

To Sleep.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je dors	I sleep
		tu dors	thou sleepest
		il dort	he sleeps
		nous dormons	we sleep
		vous dormez	you sleep
		ils dorment	they sleep
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je dormois	I slept
		tu dormois	thou sleepest
		il dormoit	he slept
		nous dormions	we slept
		vous dormiez	you slept
		ils dormoient	they slept
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je dormis	I slept
		tu dormis	thou sleepest
		il dormit	he slept
		nous dormîmes	we slept
		vous dormîtes	you slept
		ils dormirent	they slept
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je dormirai	I shall sleep
		tu dormiras	thou shalt sleep
		il dormira	he shall sleep
		nous dormirons	we shall sleep
		vous dormirez	you shall sleep
		ils dormiront	they shall sleep

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je dorme	I may sleep
		tu dormes	thou mayest sleep
		il dorme	he may sleep
		nous dormions	we may sleep
		vous dormiez	you may sleep
		ils dorment	they may sleep
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je dormirois	I should sleep
		tu dormirois	thou shouldest sleep
		il dormiroit	he should sleep
		nous dormirions	we should sleep
		vous dormiriez	you should sleep
		ils dormiroient	they should sleep
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je dormisse	I might sleep
		tu dormisses	thou mightest sleep
		il dormît	he might sleep
		nous dormissions	we might sleep
		vous dormissiez	you might sleep
		ils dormissent	they might sleep

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

dors	sleep	dormons	let us sleep
qu'il dorme	let him sleep	dormez	sleep
		qu'ils dorment	let them sleep

## PARTICIPLES.

dormant sleeping \ dormi slept.

Paragraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Ecrire

To Write.

INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	j' écris	I write
		tu écris	thou writest
		il écrit	he writes
		nous écrivons	we write
		vous écrivez	you write
		ils écrivent	they write
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	j' écrivais	I wrote
		tu écrivais	thou wrotest
		il écrivait	he wrote
		nous écrivions	we wrote
		vous écriviez	you wrote
		ils écrivirent	they wrote
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	j' écrivais	I wrote
		tu écrivais	thou wrotest
		il écrivit	he wrote
		nous écrivîmes	we wrote
		vous écrivîtes	you wrote
		ils écrivirent	they wrote
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	j' écrirai	I shall write
		tu écriras	thou shalt write
		il écrira	he shall write
		nous écrirons	we shall write
		vous écrirez	you shall write
		ils écriront	they shall write

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	j' écrive	I may write
		tu écrives	thou mayest write
		il écrive	he may write
		nous écrivions	we may write
		vous écriviez	you may write
		ils écrivent	they may write
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	j' écrirais	I should write
		tu écrirais	thou shouldest write
		il écrirait	he should write
		nous écrivions	we should write
		vous écriviez	you should write
		ils écriraient	they should write
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	j' écrivisse	I might write
		tu écrivisses	thou mightest write
		il écrivît	he might write
		nous écrivissions	we might write
		vous écrivissiez	you might write
		ils écrivissent	they might write

IMPERATIVE MODE.

écris	write	écrivons	let us write
qu'il écrive	let him write	écrivez	write
		qu'ils écrivent	let them write

PARTICIPLES.

écrivant	writing	écrit	written.
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217 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Fuir

To Flee.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je fuis	I flee
		tu fuis	thou fleest
		il fuit	he flees
		nous fuyons	we flee
		vous fuyez	you flee
		ils fuient	they flee
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je fuyois	I fled
		tu fuyois	thou fledst
		il fuyoit	he fled
		nous fuyions	we fled
		vous fuyiez	you fled
		ils fuyoient	they fled
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je fus	I fled
		tu fus	thou fledst
		il fut	he fled
		nous fûmes	we fled
		vous fûtes	you fled
		ils fuirent	they fled
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je fuirai	I shall flee
		tu fuiras	thou shalt flee
		il fuira	he shall flee
		nous fuirons	we shall flee
		vous fuirez	you shall flee
		ils fuiront	they shall flee
SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.			
<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je fuie	I may flee
		tu fuies	thou mayest flee
		il fuie	he may flee
		nous fuyons	we may flee
		vous fuyiez	you may flee
		ils fuient	they may flee
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je fuirais	I should flee
		tu fuirais	thou shouldst flee
		il fuirait	he should flee
		nous fuirions	we should flee
		vous fuiriez	you should flee
		ils fuiraient	they should flee
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je fusse	I might flee
		tu fusses	thou mightest flee
		il fût	he might flee
		nous fussions	we might flee
		vous fussiez	you might flee
		ils fussent	they might flee

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

fuis	flee	fuyons	let us flee
qu' il fuie	let him flee	fuyez	flee
		qu' ils fuient	let them flee

## PARTICIPLES.

fuyant      fleeing      |      fui      fled.

218 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Haïr

To Hate.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je haïs	I hate
		tu haïs	thou hatest
		il haït	he hates
		nous haïssons	we hate
		vous haïssez	you hate
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils haïssent	they hate
		je haïssais	I hated
		tu haïssais	thou hatedst
		il haïssait	he hated
		nous haïssions	we hated
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous haïssez	you hated
		ils haïssaient	they hated
		[Not used in this Time.]	
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je haïrai	I shall hate
		tu haïras	thou shalt hate
		il haïra	he shall hate
		nous haïrons	we shall hate
		vous haïrez	you shall hate
	{	ils haïront	they shall hate

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je haïsse	I may hate
		tu haïsses	thou mayest hate
		il haïsse	he may hate
		nous haïssions	we may hate
		vous haïssez	you may hate
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils haïssent	they may hate
		je haïrois	I should hate
		tu haïrois	thou shouldst hate
		il haïroit	he should hate
		nous haïrions	we should hate
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous haïriez	you should hate
		ils haïroient	they should hate
		[ Not used in this Time.]	

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

haïs	hate	haïssons	let us hate
qu'ils haïsse	let him hate	haïssez	hate
		qu'ils haïssent	let them hate

## PARTICIPLES.

haïssant    hating    /    haï    hated.



219 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Lire

To Read.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je lis	I read
		tu lis	thou readest
		il lit	he reads
		nous lisons	we read
		vous lisez	you read
		ils lisent	they read
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je lisois	I read
		tu lisais	thou readest
		il lisait	he read
		nous lisions	we read
		vous lisiez	you read
		ils lisaient	they read
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je lus	I read
		tu lus	thou readest
		il lut	he read
		nous lûmes	we read
		vous lûtes	you read
		ils lurent	they read
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je lirai	I shall read
		tu liras	thou shalt read
		il lira	he shall read
		nous lirons	we shall read
		vous lirez	you shall read
		ils liront	they shall read

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je lise	I may read
		tu lises	thou mayest read
		il lise	he may read
		nous lisions	we may read
		vous lisiez	you may read
		ils lisent	they may read
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je lirois	I should read
		tu lirois	thou shoulddest read
		il liroit	he should read
		nous lirions	we should read
		vous liriez	you should read
		ils liroient	they should read
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je lusse	I might read
		tu lusses	thou mightest read
		il lût	he might read
		nous lussions	we might read
		vous lussiez	you might read
		ils lussent	they might read

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

lis	read	lisons	let us read
qu' il lise	let him read	lisez	read
		qu' ils lisent	let them read

## PARTICIPLES.

lisant	reading	tu	read.
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30 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Mettre

To Put.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je mets	I put .
		tu mets	thou puttest
		il met	he puts
		nous mettons	we put
		vous mettez	you put
		ils mettent	they put
<i>Past perfect Time.</i>	{	je mettois	I put
		tu mettois	thou puttest
		il mettoit	he put
		nous mettions	we put
		vous mettiez	you put
		ils mettoient	they put
<i>Past perfect Time.</i>	{	je mis	I put
		tu mis	thou puttest
		il mit	he put
		nous mîmes	we put
		vous mîtes	you put
		ils mîrent	they put
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je mettrai	I shall put
		tu mettras	thou shalt put
		il mettra	he shall put
		nous mettrons	we shall put
		vous mettrez	you shall put
		ils mettront	they shall put

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je mette	I may put
		tu mettes	thou mayest put
		il mette	he may put
		nous mettions	we may put
		vous mettiez	you may put
		ils mettent	they may put
<i>Past perfect Time.</i>	{	je mettrois	I should put
		tu mettrois	thou shouldst put
		il mettroit	he should put
		nous mettrions	we should put
		vous mettriez	you should put
		ils mettroient	they should put
<i>Past perfect Time.</i>	{	je misse	I might put
		tu misses	thou mightest put
		il mît	he might put
		nous missions	we might put
		vous missiez	you might put
		ils missent	they might put

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

—	—	mettons	let us put
mette	put	mettez	put
	let him put	qu' ils mettent	let them put

## PARTICIPLES.

mettant      putting      mis      put.

## 221 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Moudre

To Grind.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je mouds	I grind
		tu mouds	thou grindest
		il moud	he grinds
		nous moulons	we grind
		vous moulez	you grind
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils moulent	they grind
		je moulois	I ground
		tu moulois	thou groundest
		il mouloit	he ground
		nous moulions	we ground
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous mouliez	you ground
		ils mouloient	they ground
		je moulus	I ground
		tu moulus	thou groundest
		il moulut	he ground
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	nous moulûmes	we ground
		vous moulûtes	you ground
		ils moulurent	they ground
		je moudrai	I shall grind
		tu moudras	thou shalt grind
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	il moudra	he shall grind
		nous moudrons	we shall grind
		vous moudrez	you shall grind
		ils moudront	they shall grind

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je moule	I may grind
		tu moules	thou mayest grind
		il moule	he may grind
		nous moulions	we may grind
		vous mouliez	you may grind
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils moulent	they may grind
		je moudrois	I should grind
		tu moudrois	thou shouldest grind
		il moudroit	he should grind
		nous moudrions	we should grind
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous moudriez	you should grind
		ils moudroient	they should grind
		je moulusse	I might grind
		tu moulusses	thou mightest grind
		il moulût	he might grind
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	nous moulussions	we might grind
		vous moulussiez	you might grind
		ils moulussent	they might grind

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

mouds	grind	moulons	let us grind
qu' il moule	let him grind	moulez	grind
		qu'ils moulent	let them grind

## PARTICIPLES.

moulant      grinding      moulu      ground.

22 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Mourir

To Die.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je meurs	I die
		tu meurs	thou diest
		il meurt	he dies
		nous mourons	we die
		vous mourez	you die
<i>Past perfect Time.</i>	{	ils meurent	they die
		je mourais	I died
		tu mourais	thou diedst
		il mourait	he died
		nous mourions	we died
<i>Past perfect Time.</i>	{	vous mouriez	you died
		ils mouraient	they died
		je mourus	I died
		tu mourus	thou diedst
		il mourut	he died
<i>Past perfect Time.</i>	{	nous mourûmes	we died
		vous mourûtes	you died
		ils moururent	they died
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je mourrai	I shall die
		tu mourras	thou shalt die
		il mourra	he shall die
		nous mourrons	we shall die
		vous mourrez	you shall die
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	ils mouront	they shall die

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je meure	I may die
		tu meures	thou mayest die
		il meure	he may die
		nous mourions	we may die
		vous mouriez	you may die
<i>Past perfect Time.</i>	{	ils meurent	they may die
		je mourrais	I should die
		tu mourrais	thou shouldst die
		il mourrait	he should die
		nous mourrions	we should die
<i>Past perfect Time.</i>	{	vous mourriez	you should die
		ils mourraient	they should die
		je mourusses	I might die
		tu mourusses	thou mightest die
		il mourût	he might die
<i>Past perfect Time.</i>	{	nous mourussions	we might die
		vous mourussiez	you might die
		ils mourussent	they might die

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

—	—	mourons	let us die
urs	die	mourez	die
il meure	let him die	qu' ils meurent	let them die

## PARTICIPLES.

mourant	dying		mort	dead.
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23 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Mouvoir

To Move.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je meus	I move
		tu meus	thou movest
		il meut	he moves
		nous mouvons	we move
		vous mouvez	you move
		ils meuvent	they move
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je mouvois	I moved
		tu mouvois	thou movedst
		il mouvoit	he moved
		nous mouvions	we moved
		vous moviez	you moved
		ils mouvient	they moved
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je mus	I moved
		tu mus	thou movedst
		il mut	he moved
		nous mûmes	we moved
		vous mûtes	you moved
		ils murent	they moved
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je mouvrai	I shall move
		tu mouvras	thou shalt move
		il mouvra	he shall move
		nous mouvrons	we shall move
		vous mouvrez	you shall move
		ils mouvront	they shall move

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je meuve	I may move
		tu meuves	thou mayest move
		il meuve	he may move
		nous mouvions	we may move
		vous moviez	you may move
		ils meuvent	they may move
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je mouvrais	I should move
		tu mouvrais	thou shoulddest move
		il mouvrait	he should move
		nous mouvriens	we should move
		vous mouvriez	you should move
		ils mouvraient	they should move
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je musse	I might move
		tu musses	thou mightest move
		il mût	he might move
		nous mussiens	we might move
		vous musseriez	you might move
		ils mussent	they might move

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

meus	move	mouvons	let us move
qu'il meuve	let him move	mouvez	move
		qu'ils meuvent	let them move

## PARTICIPLES.

mouvant    moving    /    mû    moved.

[Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Naître

To be Born.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

Present ne.	{	je nais	I am born
		tu nais	thou art born
		il naît	he is born
		nous naissons	we are born
		vous naissez	you are born
		ils naissent	they are born
Imperfect t.	{	je naissois	I was born
		tu naissois	thou wast born
		il naissoit	he was born
		nous naissons	we were born
		vous naissiez	you were born
		ils naissaient	they were born
Past ct.	{	je naquis	I was born
		tu naquis	thou wert born
		il naquit	he was born
		nous naquîmes	we were born
		vous naquîtes	you were born
		ils naquirent	they were born
Future t.	{	je naîtrai	I shall be born
		tu naîtras	thou shalt be born
		il naîtra	he shall be born
		nous naîtrons	we shall be born
		vous naîtrez	you shall be born
		ils naîtront	they shall be born

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present t.	{	je naisse	I may be born
		tu naisses	thou mayest be born
		il naisse	he may be born
		nous naissions	we may be born
		vous naissiez	you may be born
		ils naissent	they may be born
Imperfect t.	{	je naîtrois	I should be born
		tu naîtrois	thou shouldest be born
		il naîtroit	he should be born
		nous naîtrions	we should be born
		vous naîtriez	you should be born
		ils naîtraient	they should be born
Past ct.	{	je naquise	I might be born
		tu naquises	thou mightest be born
		il naquît	he might be born
		nous naquissions	we might be born
		vous naquissiez	you might be born
		ils naquissent	they might be born

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

		naissions	let us be born
	be born	naissez	be born
naissent	let him be born	qu' ils naissent	let them be born

## PARTICIPLES.

naissant	being born	né	been born.
----------	------------	----	------------

## 26 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Ouvrir

To Open.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	j'ouvre	I open
		tu ouvres	thou openest
		il ouvre	he opens
		nous ouvrons	we open
		vous ouvrez	you open
		ils ouvrent	they open
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	j'ouvrais	I opened
		tu ouvrais	thou openedst
		il ouvrait	he opened
		nous ouvriions	we opened
		vous ouvriez	you opened
		ils ouvraient	they opened
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	j'ouvris	I opened
		tu ouvris	thou openedst
		il ouvrit	he opened
		nous ouvrimmes	we opened
		vous ouvrites	you opened
		ils ouvrirent	they opened
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	j'ouvrirai	I shall open
		tu ouvriras	thou shalt open
		il ouvrira	he shall open
		nous ouvrirons	we shall open
		vous ouvrirez	you shall open
		ils ouvriront	they shall open

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	j'ouvre	I may open
		tu ouvres	thou mayest open
		il ouvre	he may open
		nous ouvrions	we may open
		vous ouvriez	you may open
		ils ouvrent	they may open
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	j'ouvrirais	I should open
		tu ouvrirais	thou shoulddest open
		il ouvrirait	he should open
		nous ouvririons	we should open
		vous ouvririez	you should open
		ils ouvriraient	they should open
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	j'ouvrissse	I might open
		tu ouvrisses	thou mightest open
		il ouvririt	he might open
		nous ouvririssions	we might open
		vous ouvririssiez	you might open
		ils ouvririssent	they might open

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

ouvre	open	ouvrons	let us open
qu' il ouvre	let him open	ouvrez	open
		qu' ils ouvrent	let them c

## PARTICIPLES.

ouvrant    opening    |    ouvert    opened,

agraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Plaire

To Please.

INDICATIVE MODE.

st	{	je plais	I please
		tu plais	thou pleasest
		il plaît	he pleases
		nous plaisons	we please
		vous plaisez	you please
		ils plaisent	they please
ct	{	je plaisais	I pleased
		tu plaisais	thou pleasedst
		il plaisait	he pleased
		nous plaisions	we pleased
		vous plaisiez	you pleased
		ils plaisaient	they pleased
t	{	je plus	I pleased
		tu plus	thou pleasedst
		il plut	he pleased
		nous plûmes	we pleased
		vous plûtes	you pleased
		ils pluèrent	they pleased
e	{	je plairai	I shall please
		tu plairas	thou shalt please
		il plaira	he shall please
		nous plairons	we shall please
		vous plairez	you shall please
		ils plairont	they shall please

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

st	{	je plaise	I may please
		tu plaises	thou mayest please
		il plaise	he may please
		nous plaissions	we may please
		vous plaissiez	you may please
		ils plaisent	they may please
ct	{	je plairois	I should please
		tu plairois	thou shouldest please
		il plairait	he should please
		nous plairions	we should please
		vous plairiez	you should please
		ils plairaient	they should please
t	{	je plusse	I might please
		tu plusses	thou mightest please
		il plût	he might please
		nous plussions	we might please
		vous plussiez	you might please
		ils plussent	they might please

IMPERATIVE MODE.

		plaisons	let us please
	please	plaisez	please
le	let him please	qu'ils plaisent	let them please

PARTICIPLES.

aisant	pleasing	plu	pleased.
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227 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Pouvoir

To be Able, or, To have Power.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je puis, or peux	I am able
		tu peux	thou art able
		il peut	he is able
		nous pouvons	we are able
		vous pouvez	you are able
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils peuvent	they are able
		je pouvois	I was able
		tu pouvois	thou wast able
		il pouvoit	he was able
		nous pouvions	we were able
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous pouviez	you were able
		ils pouvoient	they were able
		je pus	I was able
		tu pus	thou wast able
		il put	he was able
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	nous pûmes	we were able
		vous pûtes	you were able
		ils purent	they were able
		je pourrai	I shall be able
		tu pourras	thou shalt be able
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	il pourra	he shall be able
		nous pourrons	we shall be able
		vous pourrez	you shall be able
		ils pourront	they shall be able

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je puisse	I may be able
		tu puisses	thou mayest be able
		il puisse	he may be able
		nous puissions	we may be able
		vous puissiez	you may be able
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils puissent	they may be able
		je pourrais	I should be able
		tu pourrais	thou shoulddest be able
		il pourroit	he should be able
		nous pourrions	we should be able
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous pourriez	you should be able
		ils pourroient	they should be able
		je pusse	I might be able
		tu pusse	thou mightest be able
		il pût	he might be able
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	nous pussions	we might be able
		vous pussiez	you might be able
		ils pussent	they might be able

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

[Not used in this Mode.]

## PARTICIPLES.

pouvant    being able    |    pu       been able.

graph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Prendre To Take.

INDICATIVE MODE.

st	{	je prends	I take
		tu prends	thou takest
		il prend	he takes
		nous prenons	we take
		vous prenez	you take
		ils prennent	they take
st	{	Je prenois	I took
		tu prenois	thou tookest
		il prenoit	he took
		nous prenions	we took
		vous preniez	you took
		ils prenoient	they took
st	{	je pris	I took
		tu pris	thou tookest
		il prit	he took
		nous primes	we took
		vous prîtes	you took
		ils prirent	they took
st	{	je prendrai	I shall take
		tu prendras	thou shalt take
		il prendra	he shall take
		nous prendrons	we shall take
		vous prendrez	you shall take
		ils prendront	they shall take

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

st	{	Je prenne	I may take
		tu prennes	thou mayest take
		il prenne	he may take
		nous prenions	we may take
		vous preniez	you may take
		ils prennent	they may take
st	{	Je prendrais	I should take
		tu prendrais	thou shouldst take
		il prendrait	he should take
		nous prendrions	we should take
		vous prendriez	you should take
		ils prendraient	they should take
st	{	je prisse	I might take
		tu prisses	thou mightest take
		il prît	he might take
		nous prissions	we might take
		vous prissiez	you might take
		ils prissent	they might take

IMPERATIVE MODE.

	take	prenons	let us take
enne	let him take	prenez	take
		qu' ils prennent	let them take

PARTICIPLES.

prenant taking pris taken.

229 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Résoudre

To Resolve.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je résous	I resolve
		tu résous	thou resolvest
		il résoud	he resolves
		nous résolvons	we resolve
		vous résolvez	you resolve
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils résolvent	they resolve
		je résolvais	I resolved
		tu résolvais	thou resolvedst
		il résolvait	he resolved
		nous résolvions	we resolved
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous résolviez	you resolved
		ils résolvoient	they resolved
		je résolus	I resolved
		tu résolus	thou resolvedst
		il résolut	he resolved
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	nous résolûmes	we resolved
		vous résolûtes	you resolved
		ils résolurent	they resolved
		je résoudrai	I shall resolve
		tu résoudras	thou shalt resolve
	{	il résoudra	he shall resolve
		nous résoudrons	we shall resolve
		vous résoudrez	you shall resolve
		ils résoudront	they shall resolve

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je résolve	I may resolve
		tu résolve	thou mayest resolve
		il résolve	he may resolve
		nous résolvions	we may resolve
		vous résolviez	you may resolve
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils résolvent	they may resolve
		je résoudrais	I should resolve
		tu résoudrais	thou shoulddest resolve
		il résoudrait	he should resolve
		nous résoudrions	we should resolve
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous résoudriez	you should resolve
		ils résoudroient	they should resolve
		je résolusse	I might resolve
		tu résolusses	thou mightest resolve
		il résolût	he might resolve
	{	nous résolussions	we might resolve
		vous résolussiez	you might resolve
		ils résolussent	they might resolve

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

résous	resolve	résolvons	let us resolve
qu'il résolve	let him resolve	résolvez	resolve
		qu'ils résolvent	let them resolve

## PARTICIPLES.

résolvant resolving | résolu resolved.

agraph.)

INFINITIVE MODE.

Revêtir

To Invest.

INDICATIVE MODE.

je	{	je revêts	I invest
		tu revêts	thou investest
		il revêt	he invests
		nous revêtons	we invest
		vous revêtez	you invest
ils	{	ils revêtent	they invest
		je revêtois	I invested
		tu revêtois	thou investedst
		il revêtoit	he invested
		nous revêtions	we invested
vous	{	vous revêtiez	you invested
		ils revêtoient	they invested
		je revêtis	I invested
		tu revêtis	thou investedst
		il revêtit	he invested
nous	{	nous revêtîmes	we invested
		vous revêtîtes	you invested
		ils revêtirent	they invested
		je revêtirai	I shall invest
		tu revêtiras	thou shalt invest
il	{	il revêtira	he shall invest
		nous revêtirons	we shall invest
		vous revêtirez	you shall invest
		ils revêtiront	they shall invest

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

je	{	je revête	I may invest
		tu revêtes	thou mayest invest
		il revête	he may invest
		nous revêtions	we may invest
		vous revêtiez	you may invest
ils	{	ils revêtent	they may invest
		je revêtirois	I should invest
		tu revêtirois	thou shouldest invest
		il revêtiroit	he should invest
		nous revêtirions	we should invest
vous	{	vous revêtriez	you should invest
		ils revêtiroient	they should invest
		je revêtisse	I might invest
		tu revêtisses	thou mightest invest
		il revêtît	he might invest
nous	{	nous revêtissions	we might invest
		vous revêtissiez	you might invest
		ils revêtissent	they might invest

IMPERATIVE MODE.

	invest	revêtons	let us invest
ôte	let him invest	revêtez	invest
		qu'ils revêtent	let them invest

PARTICIPLES.

revêtant	investing	revêtu	invested.
----------	-----------	--------	-----------

<b>Present Time.</b>	{ <div>je ris</div> <div>tu ris</div> <div>il rit</div> <div>nous rions</div> <div>vous riez</div> <div>ils rient</div>
----------------------	---

ris  
qu'il rie

laugh  
let him

riant

laugh



231 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Rire

To Laugh.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je ris	I laugh
		tu ris	thou laughest
		il rit	he laughs
		nous rions	we laugh
		vous riez	you laugh
		ils rient	they laugh
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je riois	I laughed
		tu riois	thou laughedst
		il rioit	he laughed
		nous rions	we laughed
		vous riez	you laughed
		ils rioient	they laughed
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je ris	I laughed
		tu ris	thou laughedst
		il rit	he laughed
		nous rimes	we laughed
		vous rîtes	you laughed
		ils rient	they laughed
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je rirai	I shall laugh
		tu riras	thou shalt laugh
		il rira	he shall laugh
		nous rirons	we shall laugh
		vous rirez	you shall laugh
		ils riront	they shall laugh

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je rie	I may laugh
		tu ries	thou mayest laugh
		il rie	he may laugh
		nous rions	we may laugh
		vous riez	you may laugh
		ils rient	they may laugh
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je rirois	I should laugh
		tu rirois	thou shouldst laugh
		il riroit	he should laugh
		nous ririons	we should laugh
		vous ririez	you should laugh
		ils riroient	they should laugh
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je risse	I might laugh
		tu risses	thou mightest laugh
		il rît	he might laugh
		nous rissions	we might laugh
		vous rissez	you might laugh
		ils rissent	they might laugh

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

ris	laugh	rions	let us laugh
qu' il rie	let him laugh	riez	laugh
		qu' ils rient	let them laugh

## PARTICIPLES.

riant      laughing      |      ri      laughed.

agraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Rompre

To Break.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

nt s.	{	je romps	I break
		tu romps	thou breakest
		il rompt	he breaks
		nous rompons	we break
		vous rompez	you break
		ils rompent	they break
ect s.	{	je rompois	I broke
		tu rompois	thou brokest
		il rompoit	he broke
		nous rompions	we broke
		vous rompiez	you broke
		ils rompoient	they broke
ect s.	{	je rompis	I broke
		tu rompis	thou brokest
		il rompit	he broke
		nous rompîmes	we broke
		vous rompîtes	you broke
		ils rompirent	they broke
e s.	{	je romprai	I shall break
		tu rompras	thou shalt break
		il rompra	he shall break
		nous romprons	we shall break
		vous romprez	you shall break
		ils rompront	they shall break

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

nt s.	{	je rompe	I may break
		tu rompes	thou mayest break
		il rompe	he may break
		nous rompions	we may break
		vous rompiez	you may break
		ils rompent	they may break
ect s.	{	je romprois	I should break
		tu romprois	thou shoulddest break
		il romproit	he should break
		nous romprions	we should break
		vous rompriez	you should break
		ils romproient	they should break
ect s.	{	je rompissee	I might break
		tu rompissee	thou mightest break
		il rompit	he might break
		nous rompiissions	we might break
		vous rompiissiez	you might break
		ils rompiissent	they might break

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

	break	rompons	let us break
rompe	let him break	rompez	break
		qu' ils rompent	let them break

## PARTICIPLES

rompant    breaking    rompu    broken.



233 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Savoir

To Know

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je sais	I know
		tu sais	thou knowest
		il sait	he knows
		nous savons	we know
		vous savez	you know
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils savent	they know
		je savais	I knew
		tu savais	thou knewest
		il savait	he knew
		nous savions	we knew
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous saviez	you knew
		ils savaient	they knew
		je sus	I knew
		tu sus	thou knewest
		il sut	he knew
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	nous sîmes	we knew
		vous sîtes	you knew
		ils surent	they knew
		je saurai	I shall know
		tu sauras	thou shalt know
	{	il saura	he shall know
		nous saurons	we shall know
		vous saurez	you shall know
		ils sauront	they shall know

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je sache	I may know
		tu saches	thou mayest know
		il sache	he may know
		nous sachions	we may know
		vous sachiez	you may know
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils sachent	they may know
		je saurois	I should know
		tu saurois	thou shoulddest know
		il sauroit	he should know
		nous saurions	we should know
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous sauriez	you should know
		ils sauroient	they should know
		je fusse	I might know
		tu fusses	thou mightest know
		il fût	he might know
	{	nous fussions	we might know
		vous fussiez	you might know
		ils fussent	they might know

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

sais	know	sachons	let us know
qu' il sache	let him know	sachez	know
		qu' ils sachent	let them know

## PARTICIPLES.

sachant	knowing	su	known.
---------	---------	----	--------

agraph.]

INFINITIVE MODE.

Suivre

To Follow.

INDICATIVE MODE.

st	{	Je suis	I follow
		tu suis	thou followest
		il suit	he follows
		nous suivons	we follow
		vous suivez	you follow
		ils suivent	they follow
ect	{	Je suivais	I follow
		tu suivais	thou followedst
		il suivait	he followed
		nous suivions	we followed
		vous suiviez	you followed
		ils suivaient	they followed
st	{	Je suivis	I followed
		tu suivis	thou followedst
		il suivit	he followed
		nous suivîmes	we followed
		vous suivîtes	you followed
		ils suivirent	they followed
e	{	Je suivrai	I shall follow
		tu suivras	thou shalt follow
		il suivra	he shall follow
		nous suivrons	we shall follow
		vous suivrez	you shall follow
		ils suivront	they shall follow

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

st	{	Je suive	I may follow
		tu suives	thou mayest follow
		il suive	he may follow
		nous suivions	we may follow
		vous suiviez	you may follow
		ils suivent	they may follow
ect	{	Je suivrais	I should follow
		tu suivrais	thou shoulddest follow
		il suivrait	he should follow
		nous suivrions	we should follow
		vous suivriez	you should follow
		ils suivroient	they should follow
st	{	Je suivisse	I might follow
		tu suivisses	thou mightest follow
		il suivît	he might follow
		nous suivissions	we might follow
		vous suivissiez	you might follow
		ils suivissent	they might follow

IMPERATIVE MODE.

		suivons	let us follow
	follow	suivez	follow
ive	let him follow	qu'ils suivent	let them follow,

PARTICIPLES.

suivant	following		suivi	followed.
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235 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Traire

To Milk.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je traite	I milk
		tu traites	thou milkest
		il traite	he milks
		nous trayons	we milk
		vous trayez	you milk
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils traient	they milk
		je trayois	I milked
		tu trayois	thou milkedst
		il trayoit	he milked
		nous trayions	we milked
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous trayiez	you milked
		ils trayoient	they milked
		[Not used in this Time.]	
		je traitrai	I shall milk
		tu traitras	thou shalt milk
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	il traitra	he shall milk
		nous traitrons	we shall milk
		vous traitrez	you shall milk
		ils traitront	they shall milk

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je traite	I may milk
		tu traites	thou mayest milk
		il traite	he may milk
		nous trayions	we may milk
		vous trayiez	you may milk
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils traient	they may milk
		je traitrois	I should milk
		tu traitrois	thou shouldest milk
		il traitroit	he should milk
		nous traitrions	we should milk
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous traitriez	you should milk
		ils traitroient	they should milk
		[Not used in this Time.]	
		je traitrais	I might milk
		tu traitrais	thou mightest milk

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

trais	milk	trayons	let us milk
qu' il traite	let him milk	trayez	milk
		qu' ils traient	let them milk

## PARTICIPLES.

trayant	milking	trait	milking
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236 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Tressaillir

To Burst out.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je tressaille	I burst out
		tu tressailles	thou burstest out
		il tressaille	he bursts out
		nous tressaillons	we burst out
		vous tressaillez	you burst out
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils tressaillent	they burst out
		je tressaillais	I bursted out
		tu tressaillais	thou burstedst out
		il tressaillait	he bursted out
		nous tressaillions	we bursted out
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous tressailliez	you bursted out
		ils tressaillaient	they bursted out
		je tressaillirai	I shall burst out
		tu tressailliras	thou shalt burst out
		il tressaillira	he shall burst out
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	nous tressaillirons	we shall burst out
		vous tressaillirez	you shall burst out
		ils tressailliront	they shall burst out

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je tressaille	I may burst out
		tu tressailles	thou mayest burst out
		il tressaille	he may burst out
		nous tressaillions	we may burst out
		vous tressaillez	you may burst out
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	ils tressaillent	they may burst out
		je tressaillirois	I should burst out
		tu tressaillirois	thou shouldest burst out
		il tressailliroit	he should burst out
		nous tressaillirions	we should burst out
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	vous tressailliriez	you should burst out
		ils tressailliroient	they should burst out
		je tressaillisse	I might burst out
		tu tressaillisses	thou mightest burst out
		il tressaillit	he might burst out
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	nous tressaillions	we might burst out
		vous tressaillissiez	you might burst out
		ils tressaillissent	they might burst out

[Not used in the Imperative Mode.]

## PARTICIPLES.

tressaillant    bursting out    |    tressailli    bursted out.

237 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Valoir

To be Worth.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je vaux	I am worth
		tu vaux	thou art worth
		il vaux	he is worth
		nous valons	we are worth
		vous valez	you are worth
		ils valent	they are worth
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je valois	I was worth
		tu valois	thou wast worth
		il valoit	he was worth
		nous valions	we were worth
		vous valiez	you were worth
		ils valaient	they are worth
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je valus	I was worth
		tu valus	thou wast worth
		il valut	he was worth
		nous valûmes	we were worth
		vous valûtes	you were worth
		ils valurent	they were worth
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je vaudrai	I shall be worth
		tu vaudras	thou shalt be worth
		il vaudra	he shall be worth
		nous vaudrons	we shall be worth
		vous vaudrez	you shall be worth
		ils vaudront	they shall be worth

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je vaille	I may be worth
		tu vailles	thou mayest be worth
		il vaille	he may be worth
		nous valions	we may be worth
		vous valiez	you may be worth
		ils valient	they may be worth
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je vaudrais	I should be worth
		tu vaudrais	thou shouldest be worth
		il vaudrait	he should be worth
		nous vaudrions	we should be worth
		vous vaudriez	you should be worth
		ils vaudraient	they should be worth
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je valusse	I might be worth
		tu valusses	thou mightest be worth
		il valût	he might be worth
		nous valussions	we might be worth
		vous valussiez	you might be worth
		ils valussent	they might be worth

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

vaux	be worth	valons	let us be worth
qu' il vaille	let him be worth	valez	be worth
		qu' ils valient	let them be worth

## PARTICIPLES.

vaillant	being worth	valu	been worth.
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anagraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Vivre

To Live.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

present ve.	{	je vis	I live
		tu vis	thou livest
		il vit	he lives
		nous vivons	we live
		vous vivez	you live
		ils vivent	they live
imperfect fect ve.	{	je vivois	I lived
		tu vivois	thou livedst
		il vivoit	he lived
		nous vivions	we lived
		vous viviez	you lived
		ils vivoient	they lived
pluperfect ect e.	{	je vécus	I lived
		tu vécus	thou livedst
		il vécut	he lived
		nous vécûmes	we lived
		vous vécûtes	you lived
		ils vécurent	they lived
future ve e.	{	je vivrai	I shall live
		tu vivras	thou shalt live
		il vivra	he shall live
		nous vivrons	we shall live
		vous vivrez	you shall live
		ils vivront	they shall live

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

present nt e.	{	je vive	I may live
		tu vives	thou mayest live
		il vive	he may live
		nous vivions	we may live
		vous viviez	you may live
		ils vivent	they may live
imperfect ect e.	{	je vivrais	I should live
		tu vivrais	thou shouldest live
		il vivrait	he should live
		nous vivrions	we should live
		vous vivriez	you should live
		ils vivroient	they should live
pluperfect ect e.	{	je vécusse	I might live
		tu vécusses	thou mightest live
		il vécût	he might live
		nous vécussions	we might live
		vous vécussiez	you might live
		ils vécussent	they might live

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

	live	vivons	let us live
	let him live	vivez	live
live		qu'ils vivent	let them live

## PARTICIPLES.

vivant	living	vecu	lived.
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239 Paragraph.]

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Voir

To See.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je vois	I see
		tu vois	thou seest
		il voit	he sees
		nous voyons	we see
		vous voyez	you see
		ils voient	they see
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je voyois	I saw
		tu voyois	thou sawest
		il voyoit	he saw
		nous voyions	we saw
		vous voyiez	you saw
		ils voyoient	they saw
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je vis	I saw
		tu vis	thou sawest
		il vit	he saw
		nous vîmes	we saw
		vous vîtes	you saw
		ils virent	they saw
<i>Future Time.</i>	{	je verrai	I shall see
		tu verras	thou shalt see
		il verra	he shall see
		nous verrons	we shall see
		vous verrez	you shall see
		ils verront	they shall see

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Time.</i>	{	je voie	I may see
		tu voies	thou mayest see
		il voie	he may see
		nous voyions	we may see
		vous voyiez	you may see
		ils voient	they may see
<i>Past Imperfect Time.</i>	{	je verrois	I should see
		tu verrois	thou shouldest see
		il verroit	he should see
		nous verrions	we should see
		vous verriez	you should see
		ils verroient	they should see
<i>Past Perfect Time.</i>	{	je visse	I might see
		tu visses	thou mightest see
		il vit	he might see
		nous vissions	we might see
		vous vissiez	you might see
		ils vissent	they might see

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

vois	see	voyons	let us see
qu'il voie	let him see	voyez	see
		qu' ils voient	let them see

## PARTICIPLES.

voyant	seeing	vu	seen.
--------	--------	----	-------

agraph.)

INFINITIVE MODE.

Vouloir To be Willing.

INDICATIVE MODE.

nt e.	{	je veux	I am willing
		tu veux	thou art willing
		il veut	he is willing
		nous voulons	we are willing
		vous voulez	you are willing
		ils veulent	they are willing
t ect t.	{	je voulois	I was willing
		tu voulois	thou wast willing
		il vouloit	he was willing
		nous voulions	we were willing
		vous vouliez	you were willing
		ils vouloient	they were willing
t ct t.	{	je voulais	I was willing
		tu voulais	thou wast willing
		il voulut	he was willing
		nous voulûmes	we were willing
		vous voulûtes	you were willing
		ils voulurent	they were willing
re t.	{	je voudrai	I shall be willing
		tu voudras	thou shalt be willing
		il vaudra	he shall be willing
		nous voudrons	we shall be willing
		vous voudrez	you shall be willing
		ils voudront	they shall be willing

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

nt t.	{	je veuille	I may be willing
		tu veuille	thou mayest be willing
		il veuille	he may be willing
		nous voulions	we may be willing
		vous vouliez	you may be willing
		ils veuillent	they may be willing
t ot	{	je voudrais	I should be willing
		tu voudrais	thou shouldest be willing
		il voudrait	he should be willing
		nous voudrions	we should be willing
		vous voudriez	you should be willing
		ils voudroient	they should be willing
t t.	{	je voulusse	I might be willing
		tu voulusses	thou mightest be willing
		il voulût	he might be willing
		nous voulussions	we might be willing
		vous voulussiez	you might be willing
		ils voulussent	they might be willing

IMPERATIVE MODE.

[Not used in this Time.]

PARTICIPLES.

nt being willing | voulu been willing.



241. Before I quit these conjugations of regular verbs and of irregular verbs, I must give you some further advice relative to the learning of them and of every thing relating to the verbs. You must have seen, before now, that the *verbs* constitute the most important part of a language. To have a thorough knowledge of this part of speech is absolutely necessary to the acquirement of any thing approaching perfection in the language. I, therefore, beseech you to bestow great pains on this part of your study. Write down the conjugations of all the regular verbs several times over. Make it a duty to conjugate a regular verb of each conjugation *every day* for some time. And, as to the *thirty-nine* Irregulars, you should conjugate them all, that is to say, write the conjugations over so often, that, at last, you are able to write the whole of the conjugations down, from the first to the last, *without making a single blunder*; for, until you can do this, you do not understand these important words sufficiently.

242. In order to assist the memory in the case of the GENDERS OF NOUNS, I have, in paragraph 183, described a *little book* that I made for the purpose. To effect a similar purpose with regard to the VERBS, I made a CARD, which I carried constantly in my pocket-book. One side of this card exhibited an *abridgment of the ten conjugations of regular verbs*. So that, if I were absent from my books; if I were walking or riding, and thinking about any particular verb, I could take out my *card*, and refresh my memory. The other side of the *card* exhibited a *complete list of the irregulars*, with an abridged conjugation of each. I shall, presently, give you a copy of this card; and, from it, you may make one for yourself. On the *Regular Side* the *Card* leaves out the *second persons* of all the verbs but, having all the rest under your eye, you can make no mistake as to these parts of the verb. On the *Irregular Side* of the *Card* you have, after the infinitive, only the *first person singular* of the verbs and the *two Participles*. The *Card* will contain

more; but, these will be, in most cases, sufficient to your recollection the manner of conjugating the verb. At any rate, this side of the Card always be at hand to tell you, whether any verb, to which you may want information, be a *regular* or an *irregular*. This Card will be very convenient when you are translating from English into French. It will, in many cases, save you the trouble of searching the Dictionary, or of turning over the leaves of your Grammar.

3. When you have done all that I have directed, you will, before you enter on the next Letter, which will introduce you to the SYNTAX, try your little as to your knowledge of the verbs; and, you will do in the following manner. Go back to paragraph 170. There are little *Exercises* from Z. Write down the *verbs* that you find in the list that is, in A. You will find them to be : *est*, *te*, *a*, *apprend*, *parler*, *siffler* and *fait*. Take these verbs, write them down upon a piece of paper; and, against each, write down the *number of conjugation* that it belongs to, the *mode*, the *person*; and, if it be an *irregular*, write that, and any other particular belonging to it. I give you an example.

*est* : Irregular verb; indicative mode; present time; third person singular. Part of the verb *être*.

*chan*te : Regular verb; first conjugation; indicative mode; present time; third person singular. Part of the verb *chanter*.

*a* : Irregular verb; indicative mode; present time; third person singular. Part of the verb *avoir*.

*ap*prend : Irregular verb; conjugated like *prendre*; indicative mode; present time; third person singular. Part of the verb *apprendre*.

*par*ler : Regular verb; first conjugation; infinitive mode.

*siffler*: Regular verb; first conjugation; infinitive mode.

*fait*: Regular verb; sixth conjugation; indicative mode; present time; third person singular. Part of the verb *faire*.

244. When you have written against the verbs, look for the verbs in the *Dictionary*, or in your *List of Irregulars*, or look at your *Card*; and you will then find whether your descriptions be correct. When you have thus gone through one of the little *Exercises*, go to another; and you will get through the whole in the course of a day. These *Exercises* consist of sentences of very simple construction, and having a great part of their verbs in the present time; so that, when you have gone through these *Exercises*, in the manner above pointed out, you may take the verbs which you find in any two or three pages of your *Exercises* in the *Syntax*, where you will find verbs in all the Modes and all the Times.

245. Before I quit the conjugations, let me once more observe, that, in *writing* certain parts of some of the verbs, great authorities differ. I observed before, that some write *je vinse*, and others *je vinsse*: some write *je cous*, and others *je couds*. There are several other verbs with regard to the writing of some parts of which there is some little difference in the practice of different writers. But, this is a matter of no consequence, provided you *adhere to one practice*.

Alier	allier	allie	allais	allant	allé
Asseoir	asseoir	assis	asseyais	asseyant	assis
Battre	battre	battu	battais	battant	battu
Bouillir	bouillir	bouilli	bouillais	bouillant	bouilli
Conclure	conclure	conclus	concluais	concluant	conclu
Convaincre	convaincre	convaincu	convainquais	convainquant	convaincu
Coudre	coudre	cousu	cousais	cousant	cousu
Courir	courir	couru	courais	courant	couru
Croire	croire	crû	croisais	croisant	crû
Cueillir	cueillir	cueilli	cueillais	cueillant	cueilli
Dire	dire	dit	disais	disant	dit
Dormir	dormir	dormi	dormais	dormant	dormi
Ecrire	écrire	écrit	écrivais	écrivant	écrit
Fuir	fuir	fui	fuyais	fuyant	fui
Hair	haïr	haï	haïssais	haïssant	haï
Lire	lire	lu	lisais	lisant	lu
Mettre	mettre	mis	mettais	mettant	mis
Moudre	moudre	moulu	moulais	moulant	moulu
Mourir	mourir	mort	mourais	mourant	mort
Mouvoir	mouvoir	mû	mouvais	mouvant	mû
Naitre	naître	né	naissais	naissant	né
Ouvrir	ouvrir	ouvert	ouvrais	ouvrant	ouvert
Paire	paraître	paru	paraissais	paraissant	paru
Pouvoir	pouvoir	pu	puissais	pouvant	pu
Prendre	prendre	pris	prenais	prenant	pris
Résoudre	résoudre	résolu	résolvais	résolvant	résolu
Revêtir	revêtir	revêtu	revêtais	revêtant	revêtu
Rire	rire	ri	riais	riant	ri
Rompre	rompre	rompu	rompais	rompant	rompu
Savoir	savoir	sû	savais	sachant	sû
Suivre	suivre	suivi	suivais	suivant	suivi
Taire	taire	taît	taisais	trayant	taît
Tressailler	tressailler	tressailli	tressaillais	tressaillant	tressailli
Valoir	valoir	valu	valais	valant	valu
Vivre	vivre	vécu	vivais	vivant	vécu
Voir	voir	vu	voyais	voyant	vu
Vouloir	vouloir	voulu	voulais	voulant	voulu



## LETTER XV.

## SYNTAX GENERALLY CONSIDERED.

Y DEAR RICHARD,

246. In paragraph 27, which you will now again, I described to you what SYNTAX meant. the art of *constructing sentences* : it is the busi- of *making sentences* according to the rules of mar. All that you have hitherto learned is, to construct, or make, or form *words* ; how to *the spelling* of articles and nouns and pronouns adjectives to make them express the different bers and genders and cases, and how to vary pelling of verbs to make them express the dif- it modes, times and persons, and also to make spelling accord with the rules relating to the gations. These are the things which you have erto learned ; and they relate to the *making of s* : to the spelling of words in a *proper manner* ; to the making of the *proper changes in their* , according to the change of circumstances. is what you have learned ; and this is Ety- GY.

7. SYNTAX is quite a different thing. It teaches forming of *sentences*. In the forming of sen- es you have to attend to what is called *concord*, also to what is called *government*. Concord is another word for *agreement*. The words of a nce must *agree* with each other, according to rules of grammar. They sometimes *govern* other ; that is to say, one word *causes*, or *re-* s, another word to be *in such or such a form*. If *le chapeau blanche*, my words *disagree* there t *concord*, because I have the *feminine adjective* the *masculine noun*. I ought to say *le chapeau* ; and then I have *concord* in my sentence.

3. As to *government*, if I, for instance, say, *il que j'écris une lettre*, my words do not govern other according to the laws of grammar ; for,

*il faut* requires the verb that comes after it to be in the *subjunctive* mode ; and *écris* is, as you will know by this time, the *Indicative* mode of *écrire*. The *Subjunctive* is *écrive* ; and, therefore, I ought to say, *il faut que j'écrive une lettre*. But, say you, how am I to know what words *govern* other words, and in what manner words are to *agree*? You cannot know these things, until you be taught them ; and SYNTAX is to teach you.

249. Besides, however, the *concord* and *government*, there is the *placing* of the words. We, for instance, say, in English, *a wise man* ; but, the French say, *un homme sage*. We say, *white paper* : they say, *papier blanc*. Then, there is the placing of *phrases*, or parts of sentences ; and, in both languages, we must take care that we place all the parts properly : for, if we do not, our meaning will not be clear to the reader. However, you will see enough of this when you come to the *Exercises*, with which the rules of Syntax will be interspersed.

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## LETTER XVI.

### THE POINTS AND MARKS USED IN WRITING.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

250. The forms of all these Points and Marks were given you in paragraph 24. Of the *accents* I need say nothing here. They belong to the *ETYMOLOGY*, as they are component *parts* of words. But, the *points* and *marks* come under our present head ; because they are necessary in the *forming* of sentences.

251. The **FULL-POINT**, which, in French is, *le point*, and which is thus formed ( . ) is used at the end of every complete sentence. The **COLON**, which the French call *deux points*, and which is written thus ( : ) is next to the Full-Point in requiring a complete sense in the words after which it is placed.

**COLON**, called, in French, *un point et une* and which is formed thus ( ; ) is used to set off sentences, when the Comma is thought to be quite sufficient. The **COMMA**, *la virgule*, which is written thus ( , ), and is used to mark the pauses in reading, and the smallest division in writing.

This work of pointing is, in a great degree, a matter of taste. Some persons put into one sentence what others mould into two or three sentences. It is a matter that cannot be reduced to precise rules, whether we write in French or in English; these points are necessary; and we ought to be attentive in using them.

The **Mark of INTERROGATION** ( ? ) is put at the end of words which put a question. The **mark of EXCLAMATION** ( ! ) is used to denote surprise. The **mark of ELISION**, is a comma, placed before the line ( ' ). The **HYPHEN** connects words ( - ).

As to the marks for the purpose of reference, such as \* † ‡, and the like, they do not belong to grammar. People may make them of what form they please, and may call them what they please.

Points and Marks in the three foregoing paragraphs belong to grammar: they assist in the formation and in the giving of meaning to, *sentences*; for that reason it is, that they have been now, a second time, pointed out to your attention.

## LETTER XVII.

### SYNTAX OF ARTICLES.

**DEAR RICHARD,**  
 55. You will now turn back to Letter V., and read it once more, carefully through. Then read paragraphs from 77 to 85 inclusive. These parts of the Grammar will have taught you a great deal as to the Article. In the next Letter also,



which will treat of the Syntax of Nouns, there will, in treating of *Nouns*, be something about the use of the Article; but, still, there is much belonging more directly to the Article itself; and this I shall say here. The thing that you now want to know, is, how the manner of using the Articles in French *differs* from that of using them in English; and this we are now going to see.

256. There are, you know, the INDEFINITE Article, the DEFINITE Article, and what I call the COMPOUND Article; that is, the Article *united* with the preposition *de* or *à*.

257. OUR INDEFINITE ARTICLE is, *a* (which becomes *an* when followed by a vowel): the French is, *un*, or *une*. In both languages this Article can be applied to nouns in the *singular* only. We apply it to *hundred*, *thousand*, and other words of multitude; but, this is no deviation from the rule; for, we consider the *hundred*, or other number, as *one body*, parcel, or mass. The French do not, however, use this article before *cent* (hundred) and *mille* (thousand); but say, *cent pommes*, and not, *un cent pommes*; though we must say *a hundred apples*.

258. When we use this Article after *such* (*tel* or *telle*) and before a noun, the French give the phrase a complete turn: thus:

Have you ever heard talk of *such a thing*?

Avez-vous jamais entendu parler d'*une telle chose*?

That is to say, "*of a such thing*." We say, *Mr. such an one*; they say, *Monsieur un tel*: that is, *Mr. a such*. And mind; though theirs sounds shockingly to us, ours does the same to them. We use our Article after *so*, in certain phrases; thus: *so good a man*. The French say, in such a case, *un si bon homme*: that is to say, *a so good man*.

259. We, in speaking of nouns of weight, measure, or tale, mostly use *a* (or *an*); but, the French, in such cases, use the *definite* Article; as:

I sell my corn at six shillings *a bushel*.

Je vends mon blé à six schelins *le boisseau*.

We, in English, *may*, in general, use the *definite*

article in these cases. We *may* say, six shillings *the* bushel ; five pence *the* score ; and so on : but, we *do not* use this mode of expression in general ; and, the French *cannot* do otherwise. We cannot very well do it before *piece*. We cannot, with any propriety, say, ducks at two shillings *the piece*. It, this is the mode that the French must make use of. They must say, deux schelins *la pièce*.

260. We, in speaking of portions of *time*, make use of the indefinite article, where the French make use of *par* (by) ; as : ten shillings *a* day ; which, the French, is, dix schelins *par* jour. That is to say, literally, ten shillings *by* day, which is more evidently reasonable than our mode of expression. We say, working *by* the day. We also say, paid *by* the day. Why not say, then, ten shillings *by* day ; and not *a* day ? The meaning of our phrase is, so much *for* a day ; and the meaning of the French is, so much *day by* day.

261. We put *a* (or *an*), after the verb *to be*, before a noun, in the singular, expressing profession, rank, state, situation, country, or any distinctive mark ; as : he is *a* gardener ; I am *an* Englishman. The French do not do this : they say, *il est jardinier ; je suis Anglois*. This observation applies, however, only to cases where the business of the phrase is *solely* that of expressing the distinctive mark. If it have other objects the rule does not hold ; as :

He has *a* gardener.

Il a *un* jardinier.

I see *an* Englishman.

Je vois *un* Anglois.

You see, the article is, in the former cases, left out, by the French, with very good reason ; for, the words *gardener* and *Englishman*, being used *solely* for the purpose of designating the *profession* and the *country* of the man, the article cannot be *necessary* ; but in the latter cases, there is something more. Here the main business is, to make it understood, that he *has* a gardener, and that I *see* an Englishman.

262. We put *a* (or *an*) after *what*, in an exclamation.

tion; as: what *a* house! The French never do this: they say, *quelle maison!* When there is another *a* in English and two nouns; as: what *a* fool of *a* lawyer, the French simply put the preposition before the last noun; as: *quel sot d' avocat.* When we use an adjective in sentences of this sort, we still use the article; but the French never. When our exclamation begins by *what*, followed by *a*, and goes on to use a verb before it has done, the difference in the two languages is great indeed; as:

What *a* good boy Richard is!  
 Le bon garçon que Richard!  
 What *a* fine country Italy is!  
 Le beau pays que l'Italie!

These two sentences, put into English literally, would stand thus:

The good boy that Richard!  
 The fine country that Italy!

These seem, at first sight, to be two pieces of prime nonsense; but they contain perfectly good sense; and are much more obviously consonant with reason than the English sentences are. They are purely exclamatory: they, therefore, need neither article nor verb. They are full as expressive in French as they are in English; and they are, beyond all comparison, more elegant.

263. It is hardly necessary for me to repeat to you, that the article must agree in *gender* with the noun to which it applies. Our article has no change to express gender; but this is a most important matter in French, and must be scrupulously attended to. There are, as you have seen, some nouns which are masculine in one sense, and feminine in another, though spelled, in both cases, in the same way. If, for instance, I say, *un ange*, I mean *an angel*; but, if I say, *une ange*, I mean *a fish* of that name. If I say, *un aune*, I mean *an alder tree*; but, if I say, *une aune*, I mean *an ell*. Nothing can more forcibly show the necessity of strict attention to the gender of the articles.

264. Being now about to dismiss this *indefinite*

ple, let me again remind you, that in French, the two words, *un* and *une* are indeterminate pronouns (see paragraph 99), and also *adjectives of number*, as well as *articles*. In short, they answer our word *one* in all its capacities, except when *one* answers to the French *on*, which is a word entirely different from *un* or *une*. It is of great importance, that you bear in mind, that *un* and *une* answer to our *one* as well as to our *a* ; as :

A man had *one* horse, *one* cow, and two oxen. "

Un homme avoit *un* cheval, *une* vache, et deux bœufs.

As you see, *un* and *une* answer to our *one* as well as to our *a*.

15. Having now done with my rules about the finite article, I shall give you what is called an *exercise* relating to that article: that is to say, I will give you some phrases in English for you to translate into French. There must, of course, be these phrases, words of the other parts of speech; these you must translate also; but, I shall make phrases so simple, so easy, that you will have no need to attend to besides your articles, which are, at present, to be the object of your care. The sentence is, "*a hundred pounds, five shillings.*" Look into your Dictionary, and there you find, hundred is *cent*, that pounds is *livre*, that shilling is *schelin*, and that five is *cinq*. Your rule has told you, that the English *a* is not, in this case, expressed in French. Your translation will, therefore, be this: "*cent livres, cinq schelins.*" If the sentence had contained a little more: thus: "*He had a hundred pounds, five shillings.*" You know that *Il*, that *had* is *avoit*. Your translation, must, of course, be; "*Il avoit cent livres, cinq schelins.*" I will now proceed to the performance of the Exercise.

### EXERCISE I.

1. A hundred pounds, five shillings.
2. Pens at six shillings a hundred.
3. Ducks at ten pence a piece.

4. Have you heard of such a thing?
5. If such an one come hither.
6. A thousand soldiers have marched.
7. A hundred have returned.
8. I have not seen so good a boy.
9. A garden, having a wall on one side.
10. It is rare to see so bad a man.
11. A good poet, but not a Boileau.
12. He is a doctor and his brother is an attorney.
13. He is rich, a thing that he likes.
14. Such a thing has seldom happened.
15. What a garden!
16. What a noise!
17. What a fine flower!
18. What a pretty girl Emma is!
19. What a rich man her father is!
20. What charms money has!
21. What a horrible cry!
22. A fool of a boy.
23. A man who has more than one fault.
24. A table which has one broken leg.
25. A Jew's beard. One Barbary horse.
26. Give me a sentence, as an example.
27. A hen with one chick.
28. A coach drawn by one horse.
29. A veil and one sail.
30. A box of books.
31. A book and a flower.
32. One gardener and a footman.
33. A hundred of them.
34. An hour and a half.
35. Half an hour.

This will be sufficient for the present. Phrases like these will frequently occur, as you proceed in the future exercises. But, in order that you may, when you have finished your Exercise, know whether your translation be correct; or, in other words, whether you have well learned thus far: in order that you may *know* this, I shall, in Letter XXVIII, put the French of all these Exercises; and as the French will have numbers to correspond with those

of the English, you can, 'as soon as you have finished an *Exercise*, turn to my translation, when you will see whether yours be correct. If you work under the eye of a *master*, he will tell you at once. But, pray, have the good sense to *finish* your *Exercise* *before* you look at my translation ! By a contrary mode of proceeding, you may, possibly, deceive your master for a while ; but, bear in mind ; it is *you* who must be the loser by it. As I am here giving you, for the first time, instructions relative to your *Exercises*, let me caution you against doing your work in a *hasty* and *slovenly* manner. Make a *book* to write all your Exercises in : but, before you insert any translation in your book, you must make it upon a piece of paper ; and, even upon that piece of paper, you ought to write it in a clean, neat, and plain manner. Do not neglect to put any of the *points*, *marks*, or *accents*. When you come to see much of the writing of French people, you will find that those, among them, who are illiterate, do, as well as the English, disregard these matters in their Letters and other manuscripts ; but, let that be no *example* for you : make your writing as correct, if you can, as print itself. This will, in the long run, save you a great deal of that precious thing, *time*. I shall so make the Exercises, that they will, if you be diligent, lead you gently and easily over every difficulty.

266. Let us now come to the DEFINITE ARTICLE. We have, in English, only one, and it is always *THE*. In paragraph 77 to 85, you have seen how often the French article changes its form. We are now to see how the manner of using it differs from the manner of using ours. This article is often omitted in French in cases where it must not be omitted in English ; and, still oftener is it omitted in English in cases where it is indispensably necessary in French.

267. In both languages it is a general rule that *proper nouns* of *persons* do not take the article before them. See paragraph 53 on the subject of

proper nouns. But, the names of *countries, provinces, islands*, and some other parts, or divisions, of the earth, take the article in French. Also the names of *metals, virtues, vices, arts, sciences, grain, seed*; and, many other things. These do not, as we well know, take the article in English; or, at least, they seldom do. Proper nouns of *cities, towns* and *villages* follow, with a few exceptions, the rule relative to the proper names of persons. Take a few examples:

France is in Europe,	<i>La France est dans l'Europe.</i>
Normandy is in France,	<i>La Normandie est dans la France.</i>
Rouen is in Normandy,	<i>Rouen est dans la Normandie.</i>
The estates are in Jamaica,	<i>Les biens sont dans la Jamaïque.</i>
Patience is very useful,	<i>La patience est bien utile.</i>
Intemperance destroys health,	<i>L'intempérance détruit la santé.</i>
Wheat is dear,	<i>Le froment est cher.</i>
Iron is heavy,	<i>Le fer est lourd.</i>

There are some exceptions, as to the names of those countries which take their names from those of their *capital Cities*; as: *Venice, Florence*, and others. These, however, will not come under your eye in the course of the Exercises; and therefore need not be more particularly mentioned here. The French use the article with the proper names of a few celebrated Italian poets and painters. But this is not worthy of particular notice.

268. But, you must observe well, that, when we speak of going *to* a country, of coming *from* it, or remaining *in* it; or when we speak of something *belonging to* a country; in these cases, the article is not used in French any more than in English. For we say, "*il vient de France*," and not "*de la France*." We say, "*il va en France*;" *il demeure en France*," and not, *en la France*. We say, "*drap d'Angleterre*;" and not, *de l'Angleterre*. However, there are many *exceptions* to this rule: there are a great many countries and islands, and some towns and cities, the names of which *always* keep the articles, under *all circumstances*. Many of these will, however, come into the Exercises; and as to those which do not, they very seldom occur. They are

little importance to occupy a large portion of the here. The manner of using them is hardly able to rule. As to the names of *mountains*, we generally put the article before their names in both languages, and much in the same manner. But, observe, if you use the word *river*, must put the article before the proper name, if the name of the river be *masculine*, and only the preposition *de*, if it be *feminine*.

When we use proper names in the plural; we use the article with them; as: *the Turbans Bourbons*. The French do the same, whether speaking literally or figuratively.

Things, of which there is but one of the kind, or one collection of the kind, in the creation; as, *moon, earth, world, stars*, take the article in both languages, except God, which takes it in neither language; and except that *heaven* and *hell*, do not take the article in English, take it in French.

If the word God be restricted in any way, must take the article in both languages; as: *the God of Israel*. And, thus, we may use the other article, and may say, *a God of truth*. The two languages differ in all this respect. These exceptions, however, when we come to the practice, amount to little. After a few weeks of steady application, these little difficulties all disappear.

We, in speaking of persons in certain situations of life, give them the appellation belonging to that situation, and put their proper names after that appellation; as: *Doctor Black, Captain White*.

In French you must use the article, and say, *le Seigneur* and *le Capitaine*. We do not put *Mr.* before these names of titles, offices, posts, occupations, and situations. The French do; and, you must take special care not to omit it. You must say, *Monsieur le Prince* and *Monsieur le commissaire*. Mark this; for, to say *Mr. the Prince*, in English, would be *shocking*, and to say *Mr. Prince*, would be ridiculous.

In speaking of a thing in general; that is to



say, in merely naming the *sort* of thing, we do not use the article in English; as "*bread* is necessary to man." Again, "*dogs* guard *sheep*." But, in these, and all similar cases, the article is used in French; and, you must say, "*le* pain est nécessaire à l'homme;" and "*les* chiens gardent *les* moutons."

273. When we use the singular number to express a whole kind; as: *the dog* is a faithful animal;" then the article is applied by us as well as by the French; but, if we use the noun in the plural, we say *dogs*, and the French *les chiens*. However, there is an exception to the former part of this rule; for, if we employ the singular *man*, to express the whole kind, we do not use the article, and the French do use it. Let the two great rival poets, POPE and BOILEAU, furnish us with examples.

The proper study of mankind is *man*.

Le plus sot animal, à mon avis, c'est l'homme.

274. In the French language, as in our own, the definite article is used in some cases, and omitted in others, from, it would seem, mere habit, or fashion. We say, for instance, he is *in town*; but, we must say, he is *in the country*. And, *why* must we? They say, *en ville*; but they say, *dans la ville*, and the same of the country. There are certain *prepositions* which require the article after them, and there are others after which you cannot correctly put the article. The examples afforded by the Exercises will, however, make all this familiar to you in a short time.

## EXERCISE II.

1. America, Asia, Africa, and Europe.
2. Prussia is a part of Germany.
3. Venice, Valentia, Grenada.
4. He comes from Rochelle.
5. He lives at Havre de Grace.
6. He has set out for Cayenne.
7. I live in England.
8. You come from Portugal.
9. They live in Martinico.

10. She is a going to Italy.
11. The Thames.
12. The Rhine.
13. The Severn, the Seine.
14. Drunkenness is detestable.
15. Murder deserves death.
16. Laziness brings poverty.
17. Loam at top, clay next, and then chalk.
18. Barley is cheap this year.
19. Horses eat grass and hay.
20. The horse is an useful animal.
21. Birds fly, hawks fly.
22. Hawks kill other birds.
23. He comes from China.
24. The wine of Burgundy.
25. The cloth of England.
26. The horses of Flanders.
27. The cows of Normandy.
28. Trees grow well in fine Summers.
29. Summer is past.
30. I see, that the trees grow well.
31. Captain White has set off.
32. Birds sing in Spring.
33. How do you do, Captain?
34. Pears are ripe in Autumn.
35. Dr. Johnson dreaded death.
36. Queen Elizabeth and Pope Sixtus.
37. Rooks eat corn.
38. Boys kill rooks.
39. The Boys kill the rooks.
40. Philosophers disagree.
41. He is in the country.
42. She was in town.
43. God, heaven, and hell.
44. Gardens look gay in Spring.
45. Flowers fade in Summer.
46. They die in Autumn.
47. Love was the subject of the letter.
48. Apples are very good fruit.
49. The apples are dear this season.
50. Foxes kill fowls.

51. Bread, meat, flour, butter.
52. Earth, air, fire, water, all combine.
53. The air is cold to-day.
54. Winter is near.
55. Rain fell abundantly yesterday.
56. Oats are very dear.
57. Cheese is very scarce.
58. I like black better than blue.
59. He likes hunting.
60. Exercise is good for man.
61. Drinking to excess kills him.
62. Prudent men avoid quarrels.
63. Birds sing while sluggards snore.
64. Here, man! That way, woman!
65. Wood and water and fire.
66. Light and darkness, heat and cold.
67. Articles are a part of speech.
68. He has arms.
69. He has black hair.
70. The Dutch carry on commerce.
71. The Americans divide the Lakes with the English.
72. They are going to Canada.
73. Nova Scotia is a cold country.
74. Indian corn grows well in France.
75. Tobacco is a product of Virginia.
76. Cotton comes from Georgia.
77. From Florida and from the Brazils.
78. The Peruvians have gold in abundance.
79. The Mexicans have a great deal of silver.

275. The COMPOUND ARTICLE (as I call it) is the last that we have to treat of. I call it *compound*, because it is made up of an *article* and a *preposition*. Before you go any further, read, once more, paragraph 79, and also paragraph 85. You see, then, that, the words *du, de, la, des*, are, in fact, not simply articles; but, a sort of *compound* words, answering, in many cases, to our *some*. In hardly any respect do the two languages differ so materially from each other as they do in this respect.

76. These little French words are sometimes truly *articles*, and, sometimes, they are really *adjectives*. When they are the former, we must render them in English by our article and preposition: when they are the latter we must render them by the word of qualification as to quantity. In this case, “parlez *du* cheval,” the little word is article and preposition; and, therefore, we render it by our article and preposition, thus; “speak *of the* horse.” But, in this phrase, “j’ai *du* foin,” the same little word is an adjective; and, therefore, we render it an adjective. *Some* is, in general, the word; but, we may say, a *quantity*, a *parcel*; or, we may use words denoting an uncertain, or unfixed, quantity; or, if it were the plural, *des*, any words denoting an uncertain, or unfixed, *number*. The word *any*, and, in interrogations, the word *any*; and all these other words, expressive of quantity, or number, must be *adjectives*, as you must clearly perceive when you reflect on the office of the adjective. In M<sup>aitre</sup> D’Anglois, I had this illustration of the latter:

j’ai <i>plusieurs</i> amis ici,	I have <i>many</i> friends here.
j’ai <i>quelques</i> amis ici,	I have <i>some</i> friends here.
j’ai <i>des</i> amis ici,	I have <i>some</i> friends here.

Now, *plusieurs* and *quelques*, thus used, are unquestionably *adjectives*, purely adjectives. And, if they are adjectives, is not this *des* an adjective also?

77. What we have to do, then, is to consider, when it is an adjective that we have to render into English, and when it is an article along with a preposition. We have seen, that, in numerous cases, where we make use of no article at all, the French uses the definite article; and, we shall now see, that, when we use *some*, *any*, or any phrase *limiting* a noun as to *quantity* or *number*, and, yet, leaving the quantity or number *unfixed*, we must render the word, or phrase, into French by *du*, *de la*, or *des*. Our *some*, or *any*, is made use of to designate an *unfixed* part of an *undefined* whole; as: “give *some* sugar.” Here the largeness, or the small-

ness, of the part is not fixed on, and the whole mass of sugar, out of which the part is to come, is not at all defined, or pointed out. But, if you define the latter, you must use the definitive article; as: give me some *of the sugar which you have bought to-day*. Bear in mind that the French have no words, that, in this word of limiting nouns, answer to our *some*, or *any*. The business of these words is performed by *du, de la, and des*.

278. Bear in mind, that a noun must be used, first, in a general, or boundless, sense, expressing the *whole of a species*; as, *trees grow, hares run*; or, second, in a strictly confined sense, expressing *particular individuals*, or bodies, or masses; as, *the trees which are in my garden, the hares which I have killed*; or, third, in a sense which signifies limitation, but without at all *fixing the limits*. In the first case, the Article is used in French and not in English; in the second case, it is used in both languages; in the third case, it is not used in English, but it is used in French united with *de*, and, in this its use, it answers to our *some*, or *any*; though, in many cases, it is used, when we omit even the *some*, or the *any*; as, in this phrase: "he sells *books*;" in which case the French say, *il vend des livres*.

279. However, if there be an adjective coming directly *before* the noun, the French do not use the article, but merely the preposition, as was said in paragraph 85. But, if the adjective come *after* the noun, the article is used, as: *ils ont du pain*; *ils ont de bon pain*; *ils ont du pain blanc*. We say, in these cases; they have *bread*; they have *good bread*; they have *white bread*; or, we may, if the case demand it, say, *some bread*; but, we use no article and no preposition.

280. After certain words of *quantity* and *number*, as, *beaucoup* (much), *assez* (enough), *peu* (few), and many others, the article is not used, but merely the preposition; which is also the case, when we have an adjective or participle passive following

some word of number ; as, *quelque chose de bon ; cinq poules de grasses ; dix arpens de terre de labourés*. However, *bien*, when used instead of *beaucoup*, must have the article before the next noun, though *beaucoup* has it not.

281. Many other *niceties*, relative to the article, might be pointed out ; but, it would be worse than useless ; because, *practice*, which there must be after all, will give you a knowledge of these niceties without further time bestowed on rules. In the Exercise, which I am about to give you here, you will find phrases containing examples relative to the indefinite and definite articles, as well as examples relating to what I have called the *compound article*. But you will find, as we advance, that the Exercises will embrace more and more of the parts of speech

### EXERCISE III.

1. He has hay to sell.
2. He has some hay in his cart.
3. Hay is abundant
4. Hay is dear this year.
5. She wears silk.'
6. She wears fine silk.
7. Silk is very light.
8. Has he any horses ?
9. Yes, he has some horses.
10. He keeps dogs.
11. Have they any birds ?
12. Dogs bark.
13. I hear a noise.
14. I hear a great noise.
15. There is danger.
16. There are six white and two black.
17. Five killed and one wounded.
18. They have good meat.
19. She has fine eyes.
20. Sheep eat grass.
21. I have some sheep.
22. The sheep that I have sold.
23. You had some cheese.

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17. Five killed and one wounded.
18. They have good meat.
19. She has fine eyes.
20. Sheep eat grass.
21. I have some sheep.
22. The sheep that I have sold.
23. You had some cheese.



24. She will have a good deal of bread.
25. A quantity of earth.
26. Give us more money.
27. Nothing very rare.
28. So many books.
29. Very little wisdom.
30. How many windows?
31. How much land?
32. Much sorrow.
33. Much pleasure.
34. Much patience.
35. Much pain.
36. What wine do you wish?
37. Give me some red.
38. They are very honest people.
39. Cabbages are plentiful at this time
40. Some onions and some parsley in the garden.
41. The apple-tree is a garland when in bloom.
42. Cherry-trees are very handsome also.
43. The pears are very thick on that tree,
44. Pears are cheap this year.
45. Raspberry-bushes are insignificant things;
46. But their fruit is excellent.
47. What fine strawberries!
48. The spinage and the kidney beans.
49. The market is full of vegetables,
50. Wet weather is good for that ground.
51. The hay is all spoiled.
52. Hay will be dear next year.
53. Kidney beans are very abundant.
54. Lettuces are good in sallads.
55. Oil, vinegar, pepper, salt, and mustard, are  
very useful things.
56. Olive-oil is much better than poppy-oil.
57. The first is made in France and Italy.
58. The last is made in Germany.
59. The sand-hill is very high.
60. Stones do the land no harm.
61. Horse-feed is cheap.
62. A great quantity of land.
63. Larks remain in the fields.

64. Fish, flesh, fowl, grain, flour.  
 65. We have some fish.  
 66. Bees do not like wasps.  
 67. Honey is very useful in a family.

## LETTER XVIII.

## SYNTAX OF NOUNS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

282. In paragraphs from 51 to 85 you had Etymology of Nouns. That taught you, that you had to attend to the *gender*, the *number*, and the *case*. The TASK, which you had set you in Letter XIV., and in paragraphs from 174 to 180, taught you how to store your memory with regard to the *gender* of nouns, which, as you now well know, is the great thing of all as far as relates to a part of speech.

83. As to the placing of nouns in sentences there is little difference between the French and the English. The peculiarities are only two or three in number. These I will point out; and then, an Exercise, embracing a great variety of nouns, will be quite sufficient, especially after what has been said on the subject of the *Article*, which does in fact, belong also to the Noun.

84. We, in English, express *possession* by putting an *s* and an apostrophe to the end of the singular noun, and if the noun be plural, an apostrophe only; as: *John's book, the two brothers' book*. In French this mode of expression is wholly unknown. They say *le livre de Jean, le livre des deux frères*. We can say, the top of the house, or the house's; but, in French, it is always the top of the house, *le haut de la maison*. There can be no mistake here, for the French rule is invariable.

85. There is a great proneness in our language to make compound words; as: *gold-watch*. The

French have none of these words : they say, *montre d'or, watch of gold*. The same may be said of our compound words which express the *kind* or *occupation* of the noun ; as *water-rat, school-master, the kitchen-door*. All these are rendered into French in the way just mentioned : *rat d'eau, maître d'école, la porte de la cuisine*.

286. These compound words of ours are sometimes translated into French by the help of *à*, and not of *de* ; as, *drinking-glass, verre à boire*. This seems reasonable ; because it means, *glass to drink with* ; but, they also say, *cruche à l'eau, water-jug*, and, *poudre à canon, gunpowder*. It is not easy to give a rule without numerous exceptions, for the using of *à* and *de* in answer to our compounds ; but, this much may be said ; that, when the first part of our compound expresses an action, which is performed by the use of the thing expressed by the latter word of the compound, the French make use of *à* and not of *de* ; as : *writing-paper, papier à écrire : dining-room, salle à manger*. In other cases they make use of *de*.

287. In translating the following Exercise pay particular attention to the *genders*, and to the forming of the *plural numbers*. Have your *little book* of the genders of nouns before you. The rules for forming the *plural numbers* which you have in paragraph 68, you must look at again. Bear in mind, that the *articles* and *adjectives* must *agree* in *gender* and *number* with the *nouns* to which they apply. Bear in mind, that there are many nouns which are feminine in one sense, and masculine in another. Before you translate a phrase, consider well the meaning of the English noun ; and then think of the *gender* of the French noun by which you are going to translate the English noun.

#### EXERCISE IV.

1. The house is large.
2. A hand and a foot.
3. Two houses and three fields.

4. Four sons, five daughters.
5. Six children, seven friends.
3. A horse, a cow, a pig.
7. Eight horses, nine cows, ten pigs.
3. Eleven walnuts. One walnut.
1. One child, twelve children.
1. An engagement.
- . Thirteen engagements.
2. Fourteen cabbages.
1. A very fine cabbage.
- . A black hat.
1. A great deal of wealth.
1. Fifteen hats.
- . Sixteen owls.
1. Seventeen nails.
1. A very great evil.
1. Evils in great number.
- . The eye of the horse.
1. My eyes are weak.
1. The water is clear.
- . The waters of Bath.
1. Eighteen baskets.
1. Nineteen night-caps.
- . Twenty garden-doors.
1. Twenty-one river-fish.
1. The wolf's head.
1. The cat's claws.
- . The king's palace.
1. Thirty gold candlesticks.
1. Forty pewter-plates.
- . Fifty silver-spoons.
1. Sixty leather-shoes.
1. Seventy wooden-huts.
- . Eighty fire-shovels.
1. Ninety lambs.
1. One lamb and a sheep.
1. A hundred oxen.
- . A thousand birds.
- . One bird and a fox.
1. God is all-powerful.
- . The Gods of the Greeks.

45. A solitary place.
46. Solitary places.
47. He has a post.
48. In the post-office.
49. A pound of bread.
50. A book for you.
51. The king's page.
52. A page of a book.
53. At his house.
54. From the street.
55. To the field.
56. To the parks.
57. After the coach.
58. Chapter the first.
59. Book the second.
60. A treatise on grammar.
61. Walk in, Sir.
62. Ask the gentleman to come in.
63. I see some gentlemen.
64. Sir, I have seen the gentlemen.
65. Walk in, gentlemen.
66. Gentlemen, I have spoken to those gentlemen.
67. As many fine gardens.
68. Before the throne.
69. Except the servant.
70. Amongst the bushes.
71. In the birds' nests.
72. Since Tuesday last.
73. Towards London.
74. The Ladies go away.
75. The Lords stay here.
76. Get away, Mr. Impudence.
77. River-water to make beer with.
78. Madam, I have seen the lady.
79. Ladies, I am going away.
80. Go to Mr. White's.
81. William, John, and Richard's property.
82. Whose pen is that?
83. The situation of this country.
84. The governor's situation.
85. Sheep's wool is good to make cloth.

86. They talk of the lady's house.
87. Mrs. White is dead.
88. Joseph, Peter and some friends.
89. A silver-spoon full of wine.
90. A mug full of beer.
91. This path is a hundred feet long.
92. His mother's death.
93. His son's marriage.
94. His brother's good luck.
95. He has dealt in copper.
96. Coaches and horses cost money.
97. The oak is a fine tree.
98. Oak-boards are durable.
99. Elm-trees in the hedges.

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## LETTER XIX.

### SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

288. Now, read over very carefully the paragraphs from 87 to 100 inclusive. Do not think at this is not necessary. It is necessary, and, erefore, do it. You will not understand what I am now about to write half so well, unless you first read over again the part that I have just pointed out.

289. Having read those paragraphs, you will have again seen, that there are **FIVE CLASSES** of Pronouns; that is to say, the *Personal*; the *Possessive*; the *Relative*; the *Demonstrative*; and the *Indeterminate*. In the paragraphs just mentioned I treated the etymology of these: I am now going to treat their Syntax: that is, to give rules for using them in sentences; and, as this is a very important part of speech, you ought here to be uncommonly attentive.

290. *First Class*, or, **PERSONAL PRONOUNS**. After all the repetitions in the Conjugations of the verbs, it would be waste of time to dwell upon definitions of the personal pronouns. You must know

what they are as well as I do. But, that which you cannot yet know so well is, how they are used in sentences. Look, now, at paragraph 91. Read it very carefully. I there tell you that the Syntax will teach you something; and, I am now about to make good my word.

291. These *cases* are things of great importance with regard to pronouns, and especially with regard to French pronouns. The French personal pronouns are, in many instances, placed in the sentence very differently from ours; and, in some instances, one word in French makes two words in English. Hence the matter demands a great deal of attention; but that attention will soon do the business.

292. The verb must now be brought into great use in the Exercises; because, without the verb, the use of the pronoun cannot be explained. For instance, I have to tell you, that, in this phrase, *I see you*, though the second pronoun comes *after the verb* in English, it must come *before the verb* in French; as: *je vous vois*. Thus, you see, we could not get on at all here without knowing a great deal about the verbs.

293. The use of the personal pronouns in their *nominative cases* is plain enough: *je, tu, il, elle, nous, vous, ils, elles*, answer to our *I, thou, he, she, it, we, you, they*. But *nous* is both *we* and *us*; and, then, there is the manner of placing *nous, vous, lui*, and others of them in the sentence, which is very different from our manner of placing them.

294. Look at the tables in paragraph 91. There you have all the personal pronouns, first in their singular and then in their plural number. You have them exhibited in their number, person, gender and case, and in both languages. Let us now take them, then, one by one, and compare the manner of using them in French with the manner of using them in English.

295. The *first person singular* is *I*—*JE*. Our *I* is always a capital letter; but the French *je* is written like another word. Our *I* is sometimes sepa-

the verb, and placed after a conjunction, other verb to be understood; as: you are *an I*. But the French *je* is never thus used; you must never say, *vous êtes plus riche* for the place of the French pronoun, *je*, is before the verb only; and it is never, as our *I* is sometimes, after the verb, nor placed after a conjunction in the above case. In interrogations the *je* is placed after the verb; but you will see enough in the next and-by. In the possessive case our *I* is *of me*, and in the objective, *me*. In the French *je* becomes, in some cases, *moi* in the subjective, *de moi* in the possessive, and *me*, or *moi*, in the objective. We say, *of me*; but the French say *de moi* and never *de me*, or *a me*; though, in the subjective, *me*, in other cases, answer to our *me*.

*Moi* is sometimes answered by our *I*. If we only the *je* and the *me* in French to answer *I* and *me*, we should do very well with them; but there comes in this *moi* to puzzle us; and this, therefore, that we have to pay strict attention to. I have just said, that the place of *je* is before the verb; as:

<i>Je</i> souvent,	<i>I</i> strike often.
<i>Je</i> du vin,	<i>I</i> drink wine.

*I* is placed after the verb, or after a conjunction, leaving a verb to be understood, it is not answered by *je*, but by *moi*: as:

<i>Je</i> ne fais rien,	<i>C'est moi</i> qui agis.
<i>Je</i> ne sais rien mieux que <i>I</i> ,	<i>Il</i> le sait mieux que <i>moi</i> .
<i>Je</i> ne sais rien aussi bien que <i>I</i> ,	<i>Il</i> écrit aussi bien que <i>moi</i> .
<i>Je</i> ne suis pas plus sage que <i>I</i> ,	<i>Elle</i> est plus sage que <i>moi</i> .

In all these instances we see *moi* answering to our *I*. In the first *je* answers to our *me*; which it always does, when there is a preposition coming before the pronoun, or when the verb in French requires the pronoun. I beg you to pay attention to this, and to observe well the following examples:

<i>Il</i> vient à <i>me</i> ,	<i>Il</i> vient à <i>moi</i> .
<i>Donnez</i> à <i>some</i> <i>me</i> , <i>paper</i> ,	<i>Donnez-moi</i> du papier.
<i>Ils</i> parlent <i>of</i> <i>me</i> ,	<i>Ils</i> parlent <i>de</i> <i>moi</i> .
<i>C'est</i> <i>me</i> ,	<i>C'est</i> <i>pour</i> <i>moi</i> .



And not, *il vient à me*, and so on. But when there is no preposition coming before the pronoun, and when the verb does not come before it, the English *me* is rendered in French by *me*; as:

He strikes me,	Il <i>me</i> frappe.
You give me some paper,	Vous <i>me</i> donnez du papier.
They speak to me,	Ils <i>me</i> parlent.
It is agreeable to me,	Il <i>m'</i> est agréable.
James has stricken me,	Jacques <i>m'</i> a frappé.

You see that we have no word in English that answers to this *moi*. We have, for the first person singular, only the *I* and the *me*, both of which, as we have just seen, are, sometimes, answered by *moi*: to know *when* this is, I have, I hope, now taught you.

296. Before I proceed to the *second person*, let me tell you, that I shall reserve the rules for *placing* the personal pronouns, till I have, in the above way, gone through the three persons, plural, as well as singular.

297. The *second person singular* is THOU—TU. The pronouns of this person singular are, as you have seen in paragraph 93, very rarely used. We use, in both languages, the plural pronoun instead of the singular: we say *you*, and not *thou*; and *vous*, and not *tu*. However, we must notice them in the same way as we should if they were in common use. *Thou* is answered by *tu*; and *thee* which is our other case of this pronoun, is sometimes answered by *te* and sometimes by *toi*. Look at the table in paragraph 91. Observe, that what is said of *moi*, or, rather, of the occasions when it is used to answer to our *I* and *me*, applies to *toi* supplying the place of *tu* and *te*. *Toi* is used, as is the case with *moi*, when there is a preposition or a verb before a pronoun; or when there is a conjunction before our *thou*, leaving a verb to be understood. I will take, as nearly as possible, the same examples that I took to explain the use of the pronouns of the first person singular.

*tu* frappes souvent,  
*tu* bois du vin.

thou strikest often.  
thou drinkest wine,

Here, as was observed in the parallel case in the first person, there is no verb and no preposition coming before the French pronoun, and no conjunction before ours. Therefore the *toi* is not used. But, now, attend to the following examples.

It is <i>thou</i> , who attest,	C' est <i>toi</i> qui agis.
He knows it better than <i>thou</i> ,	Il le sait mieux que <i>toi</i> .
He writes as well as <i>thou</i> ,	Il écrit aussi bien que <i>toi</i> .
She is wiser than <i>thou</i> ,	Elle est plus sage que <i>toi</i> .
He comes to <i>thee</i> ,	Il vient à <i>toi</i> .
They speak of <i>thee</i> ,	Ils parlent de <i>toi</i> .
It is for <i>thee</i> ,	C' est pour <i>toi</i> .
He strikes <i>thee</i> ,	Il te frappe.
I give <i>thee</i> some paper,	Je te donne du papier.
They speak to <i>thee</i> ,	Ils te parlent.
It is agreeable to <i>thee</i> ,	Il t' est agréable.
James has stricken <i>thee</i> ,	Jacques t' a frappé.

Thus, you see, as *I* and *me* are in certain occasions answered by *moi*; so *thou* and *thee* are answered by *toi*.

298. The *third person singular*, is HE—IL. Gender comes in here; but we will lay the two other genders aside for the present, and speak only of the masculine. The *il* answers to our *he*; as:

Il frappe souvent,	He strikes often.
Il boit du vin,	He drinks wine.

It, here comes the French *lui*, to answer, in this case, the purpose which *moi* and *toi* answer in the stances above given. Look at the table in paragraph 91. You find, that *he* is *il*; that *of him* is *de lui*; and that *him* is sometimes *lui* and sometimes *le*.

The rule that I gave before applies here. When a French pronoun has a verb or a preposition before it, or when the English pronoun has a conjunction before it with a verb understood to follow; in these cases the *lui* is used in French instead of *il* and *le*. I shall now take the very same examples that I have just taken to explain my meaning with regard to the first and the second person singular; and when you have well attended to them, and compared the manner of using *lui* with that of using *moi*

and *toi* you will, I think, clearly understand the whole of this matter.

It is <i>he</i> who acts,	C'est <i>lui</i> qui agit
She knows it better than <i>he</i> ,	Elle le sait mieux que <i>lui</i> .
You write as well as <i>he</i> ,	Vous écrivez aussi bien que <i>lui</i> .
She is wiser than <i>he</i> ,	Elle est plus sage que <i>lui</i> .
We come to <i>him</i> ,	Nous venons à <i>lui</i> .
They speak of <i>him</i> ,	Ils parlent de <i>lui</i> .
It is for <i>him</i> ,	C'est pour <i>lui</i> .
They strike <i>him</i> ,	Ils le frappent.
James has stricken <i>him</i> ,	Jacques l'a frappé.

Now, mind; the three last examples, all but one, in paragraph 295, and also in 297, are here omitted; because, in the *third person* you cannot use the *le* instead of the *lui*, if there be a preposition before the English pronoun, expressed or understood. Therefore you must translate those three examples as follows :

I give <i>him</i> some paper,	Je <i>lui</i> donne du papier.
They speak to <i>him</i> ,	Ils <i>lui</i> parlent.
It is agreeable to <i>him</i> ,	Il <i>lui</i> est agréable.

Compare these with the three last examples but one in paragraph 297, and you will see the difference in a moment. But, now, before we quit the *Singular Number*, we must speak of the *Genders*. The feminine gender is, **SHE—ELLE**. Then, our *she* becomes, in the other cases, *her*, while the French *elle* becomes, in the objective, *la*, and sometimes *lui*, and sometimes *elle* besides. This appears to be very confused; but, the confusion is worn away by attention. *She* is answered by *elle*, and *her* is answered by *la*, just in the same manner that *he* and *him*, in the masculine, are answered by *il* and *le*.

She strikes often,	<i>Elle</i> frappe souvent.
She drinks wine,	<i>Elle</i> boit du vin.
They strike <i>her</i> ,	Ils <i>la</i> frappent.

But, observe (look at the table in paragraph 91), there is in the objective case *elle* as well as *lui*. This is the use of that *elle*; it is to be used when there is a preposition before the pronoun; and when there

is not, *lui* is to be used; for example, speaking of a woman, we say:

C'est à <i>elle</i> que je parle,	It is to <i>her</i> that I speak.
Et je lui parlerai encore,	And I will speak to <i>her</i> still.

The only difference is this, that, if it had been a *masculine*, I must have had *à lui* in the first line. Now, as to the *neuter gender*, there is none in the French. They know nothing at all of it. Our *it*, therefore as a personal pronoun, has nothing to answer it in French, except masculine and feminine pronouns. So that what we have to do is this: consider what is the gender of the French noun which answers to the English noun which our *it* represents; as: put my *knife* in your *pocket*; but, take care, for *it* is pointed and, as to your pocket, *it* is not very good. Here are two nouns and two *its*. The first noun is masculine, the second feminine. The French pronouns must, therefore, correspond with them; as: mettez mon *couteau* dans votre poche; mais, prenez garde; car *il* est pointu; quant à votre poche, *elle* n'est pas très bonne. The *lui*, *à elle*, and, in short, all the parts of the *il* or *elle*, when they answer to our *it*, are used precisely in the same way as when they answer to our *he* or *she*.

299. *Plural number*. I now come to the plurals the same pronouns that I have just been treating in the singular. Look at the table in the latter part of paragraph 91. Examine that table well; compare it with the table of singulars in the same paragraph; and then come on with me.

300. The first *person plural* is, WE—NOUS. Our *we* becomes, in the other cases (see the table), *us*; the French pronoun of this person and number never changes its form; and *nous* answers to our *us* as well as to our *we*. A few of the examples, that we took for the singular number, will suffice.

<i>We</i> drink wine,	<i>Nous</i> buvons du vin.
It is <i>we</i> who act,	C'est <i>nous</i> qui agissons.
He knows it better than <i>we</i> ,	Il le sait mieux que <i>nous</i> .
She is wiser than <i>we</i> ,	Elle est plus sage que <i>nous</i> .
He comes to <i>us</i> ,	Il vient à <i>nous</i> .

Give *us* some paper,  
James strikes *us*,

Donnez *nous* du papier.  
Jacques *nous* frappe.

This is very plain. Our *we* and our *us* always expressed in French by *nous*, which takes the pronoun before it, or the verb, just in the same manner that *moi* does.

301. The *second person plural*, is **YOU—VOUS**. We have just seen that *nous* is both nominative and objective; that, in short, it answers for all cases. The same is to be said of *vous*; and, here, our pronoun is unchangeable too; for *you* is the same in the objective that it is in the nominative; for I say, *you* strike me, and I strike *you*. A few examples will be sufficient. Nearly the same that we took last.

*You* drink wine,  
It is *you* who act,  
He knows it better than *you*,  
She is wiser than *you*,  
He comes to *you*,  
James strikes *you*,  
They talk to *you*,  
*You* cut bread,

*Vous* buvez du vin.  
C' est *vous* qui agissez.  
Il le sait mieux que *vous*.  
Elle est plus sage que *vous*.  
Il vient à *vous*.  
Jacques *vous* frappe.  
Il *vous* parlent.  
*Vous* coupez du pain.

As in the case of *nous*, this pronoun *vous* takes the preposition before it and also the verb, like *moi* or *toi*; but, it does not, like the pronoun of the second person singular, change its form. It always remains *vous*.

302. The *third person plural* is **THEY—ILS**. Here the gender comes in again; but, in English, there is no change in the third person plural of the pronouns to denote gender. We always say, *they*, whether we speak of *men*, *women* or *trees*. But the French change the form of the pronoun, in this person, to express gender. Let us first take the masculine *ils* which answers to our *they*; as: *ils* boivent; they drink. Our *they* becomes, in the other cases, *them*, and this *them* is rendered in French by *les*, *eux* or *leur*. Besides this, our *they* is sometimes rendered by *eux*. The thing to know, then, is, when our *they* is to be *ils* and when *eux*, and when our *them* is to be *les*, when *leur* and when *eux*. As to the first, our *they* is to be *ils* when, in French, there is no preposition and no verb before the pronoun,

our *they* has no conjunction before it in French with a verb understood to follow. It is as in the case of *il* and *lui*, and will be by the same examples.

is often,	<i>Ils frappent souvent.</i>
like wine,	<i>Ils boivent du vin.</i>
who act,	<i>C' est eux qui agissent.</i>
more than <i>they</i> ,	<i>Elle est plus sage qu' eux.</i>

as to our *them*. It is to be *les* when it is the object of an action; it is to be *eux* when a preposition is used before it; it is to be *leur* when the subject is with it, leaves *d* (to) be understood; as:

Jacques <i>them</i> ,	<i>Jacques les frappe.</i>
she <i>them</i> ,	<i>Elle parle d' eux.</i>
he gave some paper,	<i>Je leur donne du papier.</i>

I now mention what I, until now, omitted to mention, to avoid confusion. By looking at the table of pronouns, you see, in the *nominative* case, *ils* is the answer to our *they*, in the masculine. *Eux*, used thus, appears very strange. But, *elles*, used thus, and so may *lui*. The feminine answer to our *they* is answered by *elles* instead of *elles*, in all the cases where *eux* is made use of in the masculine, *elles* is made use of in the feminine. The following are the examples to show it.

is often,	<i>Elles frappent souvent.</i>
like wine,	<i>Elles boivent du vin.</i>
who act,	<i>C' est elles qui agissent.</i>
more than <i>they</i> ,	<i>Il est plus sage qu' elles.</i>
Jacques <i>them</i> ,	<i>Jacques les frappe.</i>
she <i>them</i> ,	<i>Elle parle d' elles.</i>
he gave some paper,	<i>Je leur donne du papier.</i>

As has just been said, at the close of paragraph 1, it would be useless to make any further mention of our *neuter gender*. *They* and *them*, when used to relate to neutral nouns, are to be dealt with in the same manner as directed for our *it*.

There now remains, with regard to these pronouns, the instructions as to the manner of using *them* in the sentence, which is very

different from our manner ; but which is, with a little attention, very soon learned. The *je, nous, tu, vous, il, elle, ils, elles*, take the lead in the sentence, when they are the actors, in the same way that our *I, we, thou, you, he, she*, and *they* do ; as : *je bois du vin, nous frappons à la porte* ; I drink wine, we knock at the door. But we, in English very frequently put other words between the pronoun and verb ; as : I *very often* drink wine, we *every day* knock at the door. This must not be in French. The nominative case of the pronoun must not be separated from the verb. You must not say, *je très souvent bois, du vin* ; but must place the words thus :

I very often drink wine,

Je bois du vin très-souvent.

We every day knock at the door,

Nous frappons à la porte tous les jours.

304. When there is a pronoun that is the object of the action, it comes before the verb, and not after it as in English. We say, James strikes *me* ; but, in French, you must say Jacques *me* frappe : that is to say, James *me* strikes. When the verb is in the imperative mode, indeed, the pronoun comes last ; as *frappez-le*. But, the cause of this is obvious. The general turn of the French language brings the pronoun, *when it is the object*, immediately before the verb ; as : *je le pense, il le dit, nous le jurons* ; I think *it*, he says *it*, we swear *it* ; or, word for word : I *it* think, he *it* says, we *it* swear.

305. These are the principal things to attend to in the personal pronouns. I shall now give you an Exercise on the subject. There are other things to notice by-and-by, connected with these pronouns, and especially the manner of placing them in *negative* and *interrogative* sentences : but, for the present, we have enough of them : and will proceed to our *Exercise*, which will contain an instance or two of nearly all the kinds of phrases that are necessary to our present purpose. The phrases are placed promiscuously ; that is to say, not in the order of the rules which they are intended to illustrate.

**EXERCISE V.**

1. You and I are going to supper.
2. You and your sister and I shall have some money to-morrow.
3. She and I are very happy in this country.
4. They strike me as well as him.
5. They love me as well as her.
6. May you become rich.
7. Were you to abandon me for ever.
8. Yes, answered he. No, said he.
9. I see him and his father every day in the week.
10. He always gives them something to eat.
11. They very frequently dine at our house.
12. Do that, I pray you, for my sake.
13. The horse is mine, and the cow is hers.
14. Give me some of the wood that you have.
15. He tells them all that I say to him.
16. She had not any love for them.
17. The fields belong to them.
18. It is he that they always speak to.
19. They look for them here to-day.
20. Give her something to eat and drink.
21. I will send you some flowers: they are very fine.
22. They have sent us some fruit to-day.
23. They rob and insult us.
24. He writes and sends messengers to the Secretary.
25. They are richer than I and than he also.
26. Send a messenger to them.
27. Seize him, bind him, and put him in prison.
28. We eat meat, and drink water.
29. They often come to us to get wine.
30. I gave him gold for you.
31. You saw them go to her.

**306. Second Class; POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.**  
 See them in their table in paragraph 94. In these are *no cases* to attend to. There are only the *number*, the *Person* and the *Gender*. Read paragraph 94 all through; and you will need nothing more but a brief Exercise.

**307.** But, in paragraph 95 there is another table



of possessive pronouns. Those also are so fully spoken of in that paragraph, that little more than the Exercise is required here. The main thing in both these is, to attend to the agreement in number and gender. This agreement must be perfect. Read with great care the two paragraphs just mentioned.

308. There is one remark to make, and this you must particularly attend to. We, in speaking of harm done to, or pain suffered in, our members, or bodies, make use of the possessive pronoun; as: *My* head aches, *my* finger smarts. The French, in these cases, use the *article*, thus: *j'ai mal à la tête*; *j'ai mal au doigt*. He hurts *my* arm; *il me fait mal au bras*. The pronoun may sometimes be used; but this that I have been describing here is the French idiom.

309. Observe, that here, as in the case of the articles, when the noun begins with a *vowel* or an *h* mute, the singular masculine pronoun is put before it, be it of which gender it may; as: *mon ami*, *mon amie*, though one be masculine and the other feminine. The same is to be observed with regard to *ton* and *son*.

### EXERCISE VI.

1. My hand, my pen, my paper, my ink, and my books.
2. Your pens are not so good as mine.
3. Take the chairs from my room and put them in his.
4. Take them from theirs and put them in mine.
5. Take them from mine and carry them to hers.
6. Their oxen are finer than yours.
7. Put my oxen into their field.
8. His shoes are better than hers.
9. Our coats are blue, but theirs are red.
10. Our field, their meadow, their sheep.
11. Your trees are well planted.
12. The table is bad: its legs are weak.
13. Its colour is ugly: its wood is rotten.
14. That coach is yours: this is mine.

other, I beg you to come to my house.  
 lieu, Captain. I am glad to see you, neighbour.

These are your birds and those are mine.  
 My father and mother and brothers are dead.  
 My brothers and sisters are all gone away.  
 Their servants are coming here.

Where, have you seen her cloak?  
 Come to me, sister, I want to speak to you.

O friend, I cannot aid you.  
 Take your sheep and put them to mine.  
 Take your hens from mine.

His house, her house, our house, their house,  
 your house.

His hand, her arm, our fingers, their legs, my feet.  
 Her gown, her cap, her head, her neck, her teeth.  
 Take your hay to mine: take yours from mine.  
 He does not talk of your beauty, but of mine.  
 They do not talk of hers, but of ours.

That ship is theirs.

### *Third Class ; RELATIVE PRONOUNS.*

At the table in paragraph 96. You see that there but few of these ; but they require attention. Our *who* is answered by *qui*, except when a question is asked, and then it may be by *quel* or followed by the noun or by a pronoun ; as : Contes ces hommes-là ? Who are those men ?

In all other cases, our *who* is answered by *qui* ; comme *qui* vient de sortir : the man *who* is just out.

But, as our *that* may be, in some cases, used instead of *who* ; as it may, indeed, in the instance given ; so it is, in these cases, translated by *qui*. *It* can be rendered by *qui* only when in the nominative : or, rather, when it represents an *ante-* which is the nominative. If it be in the oblique it must be rendered by *que*. Take examples :

<i>qui</i> vient de partir,	the man <i>who</i> is just gone away.
<i>qui</i> mange l'herbe,	the horse <i>that</i> eats the grass.
<i>que</i> vous montez,	the horse <i>that</i> you ride.

You must observe also, that, though we cannot with propriety use *who* as the relative to the names of things inanimate or irrational, the French use *qui* with such names, if its antecedent be in the nominative. *Que* is abbreviated before a vowel; but *qui* never is. Remark this: le cheval *qui* a vu mon domestique; that is, the horse which has seen my servant; but, le cheval *qu'* a vu mon domestique, means, the horse which my servant has seen.

312. Our *whose* is answered by *de qui*, or, *dont*; but, *de qui* is confined to rational animals, like our *whose* and *whom*. *Dont* is used for all sorts of objects, except when a question is asked; and then it must be *de qui*, or *duquel*, or *de laquelle*, according to the number and gender of the antecedent.

313. Our *whom* is answered by *que*; as: l'homme *que* vous voyez; the man *whom* you see. But, if there be a preposition, our *whom* is rendered by *qui* or *lequel*; as: the man to *whom* I have sent: l'homme *à qui* or *auquel*, j'ai envoyé.

314. Our *which*, when its antecedent is in the nominative, is answered by *qui*, as our *that* is, as we have seen in paragraph 311; but, when the antecedent of our *which* is not in the nominative, and when *which* has no preposition it is rendered by *que*; as:

le bœuf *qui* laboure la terre,    the ox *which* ploughs the land.  
le bœuf *que* je vous ai vendu,    the ox *which* I have sold you.

Our *which* is sometimes answered by *lequel*; and this pronoun takes the article with it, as you see in paragraph 97. Indeed here is the *le* in this word, which means *the which*, being used as relative to a singular masculine. If it were a feminine, it must have been *laquelle*: If a plural masculine, *lesquels*; and so on. Observe, that the French word *où*, which means *where*, is frequently used, and very frequently too, to supply the place of *dans lequel* (in which), *dans laquelle*, and so on; as: l'état *où* je suis: the state *in which* (where) I am.

315. Our *what* is answered by *quoi*, *que* or *quel*. But the former is not used (as a relative) in speaking of persons, and is most frequently used with a

position ; as : *de quoi, à quoi* ; which means of *what, to what*. But our *what* is also frequently answered by *que* ; as : *que voulez-vous ? What would you have ? Que dites-vous ? What do you say ?* If *what* is answered by *quel*, when questions are asked with a noun ; as : what house is that ; *Quelle maison est celle-là ?*

116. You must take care, in using *relative pronouns*, to keep their ANTECEDENTS constantly in your mind. In my ENGLISH GRAMMAR (paragraph 245), I have contended, that the relative pronouns *never can be the nominatives of Verbs*. I will quote the passage : for it serves most admirably to illustrate what I am about to say with respect to the functions of

*French relative pronouns* :—"In looking for the nominative of a sentence, take care that the *relative pronoun* be not a stumbling-block : for relatives have no changes to denote *number* or *person* ; but, though they may sometimes appear to be, of themselves, nominatives, they never can be such. *the men WHO ARE here : the man WHO is here ; the cocks THAT crow : the cock THAT crows*. Now, if the relative be the nominative, why do the verbs *change*, seeing that here is no change in the relative ? : the verb, in pursuit of its nominative, runs through the relatives to come at their antecedents, *man, men, cocks, cock*. BISHOP LOWTH says, however, that, '*the relative is the nominative when no other nominative comes between it and the verb ;*'

MR. MURRAY has very faithfully copied this erroneous observation. *Who is in the house ? Who is in the house ? Who strikes the iron ? Who was in the street ? Who were in the street ?* Now, here in all these instances, no other nominative between the relative and the verb, and yet the verb is continually varying. Why does it vary ? Because it disregards the relative, and goes and finds the antecedent, and accommodates its number to that antecedent. The antecedents are in these instances, understood ; *What person is in the house ? What persons are in the house ? What person strikes the*

iron? What *persons* strike the iron? What *person* was in the street? What *persons* were in the street? The Bishop seems to have had a misgiving in his mind, when he gave this account of the nominative functions of the *relative*; for he adds, '*the relative is of the same NUMBER and PERSON as the antecedent: and the verb AGREES WITH IT accordingly.* Oh, oh! But the relative is *always the same*, and is of *any* and of *every number and person*. How, then, can the verb, when it makes *its changes* in number and person, be said to *agree* with the relative? Disagree, indeed, with the relative the verb cannot any more than it can with a preposition, for the relative has, like the preposition, no changes to denote cases; but, the danger is, that, in certain instances, the relative may be *taken for a nominative*, without your looking after the antecedent, which is the real nominative, and that, thus, not having the number and person of the antecedent clearly in your mind, you may give to the verb a wrong number or person." Now, then, let us see how this matter is in French. MONSIEUR RESTAUT, in his rules respecting the *relative pronoun*, tells us, that the verbs and adjectives are to be sometimes in the plural, and sometimes in the singular, after *qui* (who), and that the adjective, or participle, is affected in the same way. He has these two examples.

Cicéron fut un de ceux qui *furent sacrifiés* à la vengeance des Triumvirs.

Hégésiochus fut un de ceux qui *travailla* le plus efficacement à la ruine de sa patrie.

What! Here is the phrase, *fut un de ceux qui* (was one of those who) in both cases; and yet, in one case, the verb (*furent*) is in the *plural*; and, in the other case, the verb (*travailla*) is in the *singular*. How, then, can the *qui* be the *nominative* of these verbs? It is clearly the nominative in neither instance. Well; but, what are the antecedents? Is the pronoun *ceux* the antecedent in the first case? it must be so; and, thus we should have it in English:

Cicero was one of **THOSE** who were sacrificed to the vengeance of the Triumvirs.

ut, then, where is the antecedent in the second instance? Monsieur RESTAUT says, that **UN** is the antecedent here! Why? For what? There is no *reason* at all. Monsieur RESTAUT says, that *qui* is sometimes in the *plural* and sometimes in the *singular*. Strange remark! And that, too, from a very clever man. But, let us have another instance. Monsieur RESTAUT gives his scholar this sentence: "CTESIAS est un des premiers **QUI** AIT exécuté cette entreprise." Now, mark his *reasons*, which shall give in English. "The verb is here put in the *singular*, because its nominative *qui* is a relative pronoun in the *singular* and has for antecedent the word *un*. When we say,

CTESIAS est un des premiers qui AIT exécuté cette entreprise, we mean not only that nobody had executed it before him, but, moreover, that he executed it before others, and that he set them the example. But then, on the contrary, we say,

CTESIAS est un des premiers qui AIENT exécuté cette entreprise,

we mean, that several persons executed the enterprise at the outset, and that CTESIAS was one of them.—Very good, Monsieur RESTAUT. But, then, why, why do you call the *qui* the nominative of the verb? You prove as clearly as day-light, that **UN** is the nominative in the first example, and that **DES PREMIERS** is the nominative in the second; you make the verbs agree with these nominatives in number; and yet you persist in calling the *qui* the nominative! And, in order to give a show of reason for this, you say, that *qui* is in the *singular* in the first example, and in the *plural* in the second; though it never changes its form.—Therefore, mind, my dear son, the thing for us to attend to here, is this; that we are never to look upon *qui* as the nominative of the verb. We must look for the antecedent; and, according to that make the number and person of our verb. Les soldats qui marchent,

and, *le soldat qui marche* ; but, if we were to look upon *qui* as the nominative, why should it be *marchent* in one case, and *marche* in the other ? The principle applies to both languages ; but, the truth of it is most clearly seen in the French, because in it the verb makes such conspicuous changes in its form to agree in number with its nominative case.

### EXERCISE VII.

1. The people who lived in that street.
2. The carpenter who made my table.
3. The cow which feeds in my meadow.
4. The sheep that are on the hills.
5. The man whose friendship I value.
6. The horse that goes in their coach.
7. The wheat that you sold at the market.
8. The wheat that grows in your field.
9. Love those from whom you receive kindness.
10. The merchant to whom he owes so much money.
11. The company whom he has received to-night.
12. The bird which has seen the bird-catcher.
13. The bird which the bird catcher has seen.
14. The age in which we live.
15. The gentleman to whom it belongs.
16. The country which I like best.
17. The weather which pleases me the most.
18. The ink that I make use of.
19. The people whom you spoke of yesterday.
20. The man whom I most dislike.
21. What do you want with us ?
22. What do they say to you and your family ?
23. That is the business which they spoke of.
24. It is you and your son that they are talking of.
25. There are the ladies whom he was speaking of.
26. The gentleman from whom I received so much kindness.
27. Who are you speaking of ?
28. What man is that ? What boy is that ?
29. Which of the two chairs do you like best ?
30. Which of the three looking-glasses do you like best ?

31. The trouble from which he has escaped.
32. My friend who died yesterday, and whom I loved so well.
33. What do you talk of? What is that?
34. What gentleman is that?
35. With what fleet did he come?
36. Who has told you that?
37. One of those who came last night.
38. One of the first who did it.
39. The hawk that my brother has shot.
40. Who can tell what may happen.

317. *Fourth Class ; DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.* Look now at paragraph 98. Attend to the whole of it, and particularly to the *table*. You see here a great variety of words to answer to our *his, that, these and those*. You see *he* and *she* in the *table*. That is because the French make use of these pronouns sometimes to supply the place of these two personal pronouns. In fact the *celui* is the *lui* (he or him) with the *ce* (this) prefixed to it; and the *celle* is the *elle* (she or her) with the *ce* (dropping the *e*) prefixed to it. The same may be said of *ceux*, which is *eux* (they or them) with the *ce* (dropping the *e*) prefixed to it. So that, if we were to put these words into English literally, *CELUI* would be, *this he*; *CELLE* would be, *this she*; *CEUX* would be, *this they* masculine; and *CELLES* would be, *this they* feminine. The *CECI* and *CELA* are *this here* and *this there*. *CELUI-CI* is *this he here*; and *CELUI-LA* is *this he there*. The same explanation holds good as to *CELLE-CI*, *CELLE-LA*, *CEUX-CI* and *CEUX-LA*, *CELLES-CI* and *CELLES-LA*. *Ci* and *la* are adverbs, meaning *here* and *there*.

318. The original word is, as we have seen *ce* (this,) which is *CET* before a vowel, *CETTE* for the feminine, and *CES* for the plural of both genders. This is all that there is of the word itself: all the rest is personal pronoun and adverb. The *ce* is greatly used with the verb *to be*, *être*, instead of the personal pronoun *il*; as: *c'est une bonne chose, que de se*



*lever de bonne heure*: it is good to rise early. It is a softer expression than *il est*, and it is a great favourite with the French.

319. These pronouns are, or, rather this pronoun is, called *Demonstrative* because it is used to *point out* the noun in a direct manner: almost to *show* it; as: *this* house; *that* field; *these* oxen; *those* fowls. When we use these words, we seem to be almost pointing with our finger at the house, the field, the oxen, and the fowls. To *demonstrate* means to show in the clearest manner; and, therefore, these are called *Demonstrative pronouns*; or, rather, this is called a demonstrative pronoun; for, as I have shown, there is, in fact, only the pronoun *ce*, all the rest being the same word under different forms. Nor have we but one word of this kind; namely; *this*. The other three demonstratives are only so many changes in the form of *this*. The first change is *that*, the next is *these*, and the third, *those*. These changes are to express *situation* and *number*. The French, in addition to situation and number, express *gender*, which, in this case, we do not. We say, *this* boy, *this* girl, *this* hat, *this* pen; but, they say, *ce* garçon, *cette* fille, *ce* chapeau, *cette* plume. In the plural they have *ces* for both genders; but, this answers to our *these* and *those* only in part: only when there is a noun coming directly after it; as: *ces* garçons, *ces* filles: and, then, there must generally be, *ci*, or *là*, after the noun; as: *ces* garçons-ci; *these* boys: *ces* filles-là; *those* girls.

320. Our *those* is frequently used indifferently with the personal pronoun *they*; but when this can be done in English, the French requires the demonstrative; as:

<i>They</i> who are wise,	} <i>Ceux</i> qui sont sages.
<i>Those</i> who are wise,	

In the singular number, we cannot, in English, use the demonstrative in this way. We cannot say, speaking of a man:

*This* who is tall,  
*That* who is very rich.

We must use the personal pronoun, thus :

*He* who is very tall,

*He* who is very rich.

Then in speaking of a woman we must say :

*She* who is very tall,

*She* who is very rich.

But, in French, the demonstrative is used in all these cases ; *celui* in the first four instances, and *celle* in the two last.

321. But, the main thing in regard to these demonstratives, the great difference in the two languages, and great object for you to attend to, is, the use of *ce* with the verb *être* ; in which use it generally answers to our *it* ; but sometimes to our *he* or *she*. The use of *ce*, in this way, is of endless occurrence. We say,

It is a good thing.

He is a good man.

She is a very handsome girl.

In all these cases, the French say ; *c'est une bonne chose* ; *c'est un bon homme* ; and so on. The *ce* means *this*, but, no matter : the French language chooses to say, *this* is a good thing, and not, *it* is a good thing. But, mind, in certain cases, you have a choice ; for, when we, in English, use *it* with the verb *to be* followed by a noun or pronoun, thus, *is I* who see the enemy ; when we, in English, use a phrase of this sort, we must, in French, employ *ce*, and not *il*. We cannot say, *il est moi qui* is l'ennemi. We must say, *c'est moi*. In all such cases, *it* was I, *it* is you, *it* was we, *it* was the people, and the like, you must use *ce* for our *it* ; as : *estoit moi, c'est vous*, and so on, always with *ce*, and not with *il*. How the *verb* is to be managed in these cases you will see, when you come to the *impersonal verbs*. At present we have to do with the pronouns ; and particularly with the use of *ce* for our

Having now, I think, pretty well, explained the nature and offices of these pronouns, I shall give you exercise on them.

## EXERCISE VIII.

1. There is a great deal of fruit in that country.
2. This garden is very full of flowers.
3. Which of these flowers do you like best?
4. Do you like this best, or that?
5. It is I who order you to do it.
6. It is the master of the house who is coming.
7. It is a very fine country.
8. It is a great pity.
9. This pen is better than that.
10. These pens are as good as those.
11. This corn is cheap, but it is not good.
12. Your land is as good as that of your neighbour.
13. Those who think that they gain by roguery deceive themselves.
14. He who goes to bed late must get up late.
15. She who thinks too much of her beauty.
16. He who lives a sober life is more happy than he who does not.
17. He does not know how fine this country is who has not seen it.
18. That which you have sent I like well.
19. He tells us what he knows of them.
20. She tells her mother all that she hears.
21. What vexes me most is, he will not see me.
22. Those only speak ill of him who do not know him.
23. They do not know what hunger is who have always had an abundance.
24. These are the oxen that I like best.
25. Those that you have are but poor animals.
26. That dog appears to be of the same kind as this.
27. Yes; but this is better than that.
28. This bird sings better than that which you have.
29. These partridges are bigger than the English ones.
30. These woodcocks fly swifter than those.
31. Which of them are best to eat?
32. Those that fly swiftly, or those that fly slowly?

322. *Fifth Class* ; INDETERMINATE PRO-

3. Now go back to paragraph 99. Read paragraph, and also paragraph 100, very attentively and examine well the list of indeterminate pronouns in paragraph 99. First of all, after you looked well at this list, observe this: that, though the certain English words placed opposite the French words, and though, in some cases, the latter correspond to the former, they *do not always do it*. It is this table alone, therefore, that will teach you to use these French words, and especially the French words, which, though called *indeterminate* words, are very important in the language.

When the scholar sees *of it*, *of him*, *of her*, and nothing but the French *en* placed opposite them; when he sees, that this one little word answers to all these different phrases, the difficulties insurmountable. At the end, however, of days' attentive study, the difficulty disappears, and, before the end of an *hour*, you will, I perceive it begin to disappear.

ALL—TOUT, which, as you see, becomes *tous*, and *toutes*. This word answers, in this sense, to ALL. This *all* you will bear in mind, is not a pronoun in all cases. It is not one in this very "all cases." It is an *adjective*. It is a pronoun only when it stands for a noun; and, it is clear to me, that it ought never to be called a pronoun, seeing that I know of no case, where a pronoun is not understood when *all* is used.

BOTH—L'UN ET L'AUTRE. The French have the word to answer to our *both*. They are to say, *the one and the other*; and this phrase is, you see, according to number and gender. But, however, be no difficulty here; and the same may be said of *either*, *neither*, and *one another*. It is *l'un ou l'autre* (the one or the other); but, *ni l'un ni l'autre* (neither the one nor the other) and the last is *l'un l'autre* (the one the other); the last phrase is, you will find, if you look well just as consonant with *reason* as our *one another*. It is now, I hope, unnecessary for me to

dwell on the changes to be made here on account of *number* and *gender*. These must, by this time, become as familiar to you as the use of your eyes or teeth.

325. **SOMEBODY, OR SOME ONE—QUELQU'UN. EVERY BODY, EACH, EVERY ONE,—CHACUN.** These apply to things as well as persons in French; though where *body* is used they do not so apply in English. **CHACUN** has gender, you see; but no change to denote a difference in number. However, these things are so little embarrassing, that a very few instances in the Exercises will be sufficient to make them clear to you.

326. **NOBODY NONE—AUCUN NUL, NULLE.** In the French all these three pronouns apply to things as well as to persons. They admit of no changes except those you see in the table.

327. **ANY BODY—QUICONQUE** is of both genders, and never used but in the singular number. *Whoever* is also translated by *quiconque*, and whatever by *quelconque*.

328. **NOBODY—PERSONNE.** This is a word much in use. It is written like the feminine noun *personne* (person); but it is a negative pronoun, meaning *nobody*, or *no one*; and it is wholly unchangeable in its form. **PLUSIEURS** (many) and **RIEN** (nothing), the first being always plural and the last always singular, merit no particular remark. They experience no changes in their form, and have, in all cases, the same meaning.

329. Very different is it with the remaining five pronouns, which, as before observed, are amongst the most important words in the French language. I shall devote one paragraph to each of them, and, in order to obviate confusion and to make reference easy, no more than one paragraph.

330. **LE.** This is, you know, the definite article, *the*; it is also the personal pronoun, *him*; it is the personal pronoun, *it*; as:

*Le pommier porte beaucoup de fruit.*      *The apple tree bears much fruit.*

Je le taille tous les ans,	I prune <i>it</i> every year.
C'est mon domestique : je le maintiens.	He is my servant : I support <i>him</i> .

Thus then, we have this same *LE* acting in three capacities. But, we are now to view it in its fourth capacity, in which we shall, agreeably to the table in paragraph 99, find it sometimes answering to *so*, or *such*, sometimes to *it*, and sometimes supplying the place of great part of a sentence. Let us take an instance of each.

*Vous êtes laborieux, et il ne l'est pas.*

*Je crois qu'il va venir ; du moins je le désire.*

*Etes vous le propriétaire de cette maison ? Oui, je le suis.*

In the first of these instances, we should put *so* ; in the second *it* ; in the third *nothing*, or we should nearly repeat all the words of the question, and say ; *yes, I am the proprietor of it*. So that this little word performs a great deal. It makes the sense precise and clear without repetition and a great mass of words. Perhaps, however, if we look well into the matter, we might, without any very great violence done to our language, translate this *le* by our *it*. Let us take the three examples just given :

*You are industrious, and he is not it.*

*I believe that he is coming ; at least I wish it.*

*Are you the proprietor of that house ? Yes, I am it.*

We have now done with this *LE*, till we come to the *interrogatives* and *negatives*, where we shall find it great actor.

331. *EN*. This word, the table says, answers to *ur of it, of him, of her, of them*. But it answers, perhaps, to a great deal more than all these. It is a word of most extensive use. It is always in the objective case, and it never changes its form. Its use *to save repetition*. This is, indeed, the office of all pronouns ; but *en* applies in so many ways that it would fill a volume to describe minutely all its functions. You must bear in mind, that *EN* is, sometimes, a preposition ; and that, then, it means *in*. However, that is wholly a different word, though containing the same letters. *EN*, pronoun, may

have relation to, or may stand for, a noun of either gender, or either number. It is always preceded by some noun, expressed or understood; and it is made use of to save the repeating of that noun, or the employing of many words, which are rendered unnecessary by employing it. A few examples will give you an idea of its use:

1. Savez-vous où il y a des choux ? Oui ; il y *en* a dans mon jardin.
2. Avez-vous parlé de la fille ? Oui ; j' *en* ai parlé.
3. Voulez-vous des noix ? Oui ; j' *en* veux.
4. Tenez-vous des chiens ? J' *en* tiens plusieurs.
5. Combien de moutons avez-vous ? J' *en* ai trois cents.
6. Il a vendu du sucre ; mais il *en* a encore.
7. Ils avoient des fleurs, et ils *en* ont encore de très-belles.
8. Voici de belles pêches ; *en* voulez vous ?

Now let us make, as nearly as possible, a word-for-word translation of these sentences.

1. Know you where there are cabbages ? Yes ; there are *of them* in my garden.
2. Have you spoken of the girl ? Yes ; I *of her* have spoken.
3. Wish you to have some walnuts ? Yes ; I *of them* wish to have.
4. Keep you dogs ? I *of them* keep several.
5. How many sheep have you ? I *of them* have three hundred.
6. He has sold some sugar ? but he *of it* has yet.
7. They had flowers, and they *of them* have yet very fine.
8. See, here are fine peaches : *of them* do you wish to have ?

You see, then, what an important word this is : and yet, till you come to *interrogatives* and *negatives*, you see but a part of its importance. Besides its applicability to all persons and things, it applies to *place*, and stands for, *from this*, *from that*, or, *from this place*, or, *that place* ; as :

Il <i>en</i> vient,	He comes, or is come, <i>from that place</i> .
Je m' <i>en</i> vais,	I am going <i>away</i> .
Allez-vous- <i>en</i> .	Go <i>hence</i> : or go <i>away</i> .

In all these cases the *en* is a pronoun, though translated by a noun or an adverb. If the translation were strictly literal, it would stand thus : He *from it* comes ; I *from it* go ; Go you *from it* : or, at least *from that*, and *from this* (place). Always look well into these *literal meanings* ; for, by doing that, you

get at the *reason* for the thing being thus, or thus ; and, mind, it is not really learning to do a thing, unless you get at the reason for doing it.

332. Y. This is a word of the same character, and of nearly as much importance as the last. In the table (which look at very often) *y* is exhibited as answering to our *to it*, *to him*, *to her*, *to them*, in the same sort of way that *EN* answers to the same pronouns with *of* or *from* before them. But, *y*, like *en*, does more than the table promises ; for, it answers to *at it*, *in it*, *at*, or *in that place* ; and, in short to many other phrases. *Y*, like *en*, is confined to neither gender and to neither number. It is made to relate to persons as well as things ; and, like *en* it never changes its form. In short it performs the same functions as *en*, or, very nearly the same, only the nouns or pronouns which it represents have *to*, *at*, *in* or *by*, before them, instead of *of* or *from*. Let us, as before, take a few instances.

1. Il apprendra le François, parce qu' il s' *y* applique.
2. Avez-vous mis le miroir dans la salle ? Il *y* est.
3. Ont-ils songé à mon affaire ? Oui, ils *y* ont songé.
4. Pensez-vous à ce pauvre homme ? Oui ; j' *y* pense.
5. Il m' ont fait des promesses ; mais je ne m' *y* fie pas.
6. Ils ont fait le travail ; mais ils n' *y* gagneront rien.
7. Allez à la campagne. J' *y* vais.

These may suffice. Let us, as we did before, translate them as literally as possible.

- . He will learn French, because that he himself *to it* applies.
- . Have you put the looking-glass in the parlour ? It *in it* is.
- . Have they thought of my business ? Yes ; they *to it* have thought.
- . Do you think to this poor man ? Yes ; I *to him* think.
- . They to me have made promises ; but I *in them* confide not.
- . They have done the work ; but they *by it* will gain nothing.
- . Go to the country. I am *thither* going.

Observe: the French say think *to*, and not think *of* thing. Now, look at the power of this letter *y*. Here we have *to it*, *in it*, *to him*, *in them*, *by it*, and *thither*, all expressed in French by this word *y*. And, observe, as *EN* is besides its capacities as pronoun, a *preposition*, answering to our *in* ; so *y* is,



besides its capacities as pronoun, an *adverb*, answering to our *there*, or rather, *thither*.

333. ON. I have in the table, represented this word as answering to our *one*, *they*, *we*, and *people*. We shall find, however, that this is not all. But first, pray mind, that this has nothing to do with our *number ONE*. We sometimes say, in English, "*one* thinks, *one* eats, *one* sleeps," and the like. But, this is not, in fact, *English*. It is a mere imitation of the French *on*, which has no more to do with *number ONE*, than it has to do with *nine*. The French *on* is best answered by our *they*, or *people*; as:

they } say, that we shall have war.  
people }  
On dit que nous aurons la guerre.

Sometimes we use *we*; and sometimes the *impersonal*; as *it is said*, that we shall have war. Indeed *we* cannot be used in all cases: it cannot in the instance just given. It can never answer to the French *on*, except in a very large and unconfined sense, meaning all mankind, or, at least, a whole people. The *on* applies to persons only; but, it applies, or, by use, is made to apply, to both genders and both numbers, and to all the persons, even to the first; for, it is so convenient a word, that the French often make use of it instead of *je*. But, the great and regular use of it is, where we use the impersonal, or the participle with the verb to be; as:

On croit qu'il viendra,      It is believed that he will come.  
On lui a dit de venir,      He has been told to come.

We do not say, *one believes* that he will come; *one has told him* to come. This is not in the character of our language. Indeed it is shocking nonsense; because as I said before, *on* is no more translated by *ONE* than it is by *NINE*. When we, in English, speak in very general terms, we may and we do, now and then, make use of *ONE* as an indeterminate pronoun; but mind, it can be merely *for once and away*; for, if we attempt to keep it up, we find that we are gabbling a sort of broken English. The *on*

will observe, always in the *nominative case*.  
 ver the object in the sentence. When *on* is  
 d by a word which ends with a vowel, it is  
*Pon* for the sake of better sound ; as : après  
*m* dine : after that they dine. But, if *on* be  
 d in the sentence, it must be written all the  
 rough in the same way that it is at the begin-  
 I will not here insert any more examples.  
 , relating to *on*, will be found in the next  
 e, which will of course, relate to the whole  
*Indeterminate Pronouns* : of which there  
 s one to be attended to.

*Se*, which sometimes becomes *soi*. The *se*  
 or *selves* ; and *soi* is the same word, in fact,  
 generally a preposition before it. It has no  
 changes, and applies to the third persons of  
 numbers and both genders. But, before you  
 further, turn back to paragraph 129, where  
 I find my first mention of this pronoun *se*.  
 I see the principal use to which it is applied.  
 the paragraphs from 129 to 134 inclusive  
 all that is necessary to be said on the sub-  
 se. I was, as you will see, obliged to treat  
 lly there ; because, without making the use  
 early understood, I could not make myself  
 hensible with regard to the reflected verbs,  
 h I was compelled to treat in that place.  
 I therefore, now read that part over again  
 eat attention. You will see the part that *se*  
 the conjugation of a verb. To this if we  
 ew instances of the manner of using *soi*, we  
 me to our promised Exercise on *Indetermi-*  
*ronouns*. *Soi* when used in a general sense  
 s to our *themselves*, *ourselves*, or *oneself* ; as :  
 or *they*, like *themselves* : in French : *on's*  
*oi-meme*. Again, people like *themselves*,  
*on n' aime que soi*. The French word, *soi*,  
 is almost become English. It is, literally,  
*ring*, and, properly translated, it is, self-  
 or self-styling. I am now going to insert  
 ercise relating to all these indeterminate pro-

nouns. Consider well before you translate; and look back continually at your table and your rules.

### EXERCISE IX.

1. Every body ought to be rewarded for his labour.
2. All men must have food and raiment.
3. Every one goes whither he likes.
4. The judges were seated, every one in his place.
5. Each of them gave his opinion on the subject.
6. Give some food to each of the two; but none to the third.
7. Every body knows that, and many say it.
8. Some say that he is going to quit his house.
9. Several have assured me that he is coming.
10. Some people like that way of travelling.
11. Some are better than others.
12. We must not take the goods of others.
13. Other people do not do that.
14. He spends other people's money.
15. They sent fruit and flowers to one another.
16. All is sold, and carried away from the house.
17. The sheep are all dead. What! all?
18. Whoever goes in that road will tumble.
19. Every thing whatever that is found there.
20. He will talk with any body that will talk with him.
21. Whoever neglects his business will be ruined.
22. I will maintain that against any body.
23. Give us the whole; every thing whatever.
24. He succeeds in whatever he undertakes.
25. Whatever he may say, he will not escape it.
26. Whatever may be the price, you must give it.
27. Who is the man that has stolen your money?
28. I do not know, but, whoever he may be, he ought to be punished.
29. The man is caught. We do not know what he is; but, whatever he may be, he shall be punished.
30. Some plums in a little straw-basket.
31. There were two apples, a few cherries, and some apricots.
32. Some say that she will be very rich; others say that she will not.

33. However rich she may be ; whatever riches she may have.
34. Whatever fine houses and gardens they may have.
35. They do not like one another, I assure you.
36. One or the other will come to-morrow ; but neither will come to-day.
37. He has done nothing for me, and he will do nothing for you.
38. Nothing succeeds that they undertake.
39. Nobody believes that. I have told it to nobody.
40. Did anybody ever see the like before ?
41. Not one of his people came last night.
42. Not one of the soldiers escaped from the enemy.
43. Have you any pears ? Not one, upon my word.
44. Nobody is come with the fruit and the wine.
45. We do not like that others should meddle in our family-affairs.
46. We eat when we are hungry and drink when we are thirsty.
47. We plant trees for our grandchildren ; and we act wisely and justly in doing this.
48. They are going to sow wheat in that field ; but they have not prepared the land well.
49. People say that you are going to be married.
0. I wish people would talk of their own affairs, and not of mine.
1. It is said that there is a great crop of wheat.
2. He has been advised to leave the country.
3. We lead a pleasant life ; we rise early, we walk out, then we breakfast, and then we walk again ; or, perhaps, we ride.
4. You may translate such phrases as this, and the last, in either of the two ways ; that is to say, with the *on*, or with the *nous* or the *vous*.
5. Do you know that there are soldiers in the town ? Yes : for I have seen many of them.
6. What noise is that ? What is the cause of it ?
7. Where are the ladies ? I do not know any thing of them.
8. What have they done with my sword ? I know nothing about it.

59. Are there many vessels in the port? Yes: there are more than a hundred.
60. If she come from the country to-day, she will return to it to-morrow.
61. They are praised very much; but not more than they ought to be.
62. They are very poor, but many of their neighbours are not.
63. Is that your house? Yes, it is.
64. There is my glass: put some wine in it.
65. He has bought the estate: he has been aiming at it a long time.
66. She is come home. She will leave it again to-morrow.
67. I am going off to see my plantation.
68. They care for nobody but themselves.
69. Pride becomes nobody. Covet not the goods of others.
70. Nothing is good enough for him.
71. They will go thither to her.
72. We talked of it there.
73. Give them some of it.
74. Send some of it to them.
75. He is going back to his country.
76. They have come away quickly.
77. He says and stands to it.
78. He has a great spite against you.

335. Thus I close the Letter on the *Syntax of Pronouns*; and now, before I go to the *Syntax* of the remaining parts of Speech, I shall give you a letter on the NEGATIVES and INTERROGATIVES, and another on the IMPERSONALS. But, let me pray you to take great pains about the pronouns before you quit them. They are very important words; they occur in almost every sentence. They are little words of great meaning; and if great attention be not paid to their meaning it is useless to read them, and even to write them. You now *begin to know how to write a little French*. That is a great thing. If hard pushed, you could write a note to a French

can to ask him to lend you a pony. That is something gained, at any rate. You have only to persevere, and you will be able to write a letter, in French, to a French lady, most humbly beseeching her to honour you with her hand at a ball.

## LETTER XX.

### SYNTAX OF NEGATIVES AND INTERROGATIVES.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

336. Words of all the parts of speech come into *negative* and *interrogative* phrases. The words, which are called *negatives*, belong principally to that part of speech which are called *adverbs*. But, as the placing of the words which is chiefly to be attended to in negative and interrogative sentences.

337. Our principal *negatives* are *no* and *not*, the former mostly applying to nouns and pronouns, and the latter to verbs; as: I have no *apples*, you do not *like*. The French generally use two of these words where we use but one. We say, I possess *no* land: they say, je *ne* possède *pas* de terre. That is, I possess *not of land*. But, indeed, you cannot translate here *word for word*. *NE* and *PAS* amount, in this case, to *no*; and they must be made use of together to it. Let us take our verb *TUER* and conjugate it with the negatives; or, at least (for that will be enough) let us conjugate it as far as relates to the first person of each mode and time. We will put the infinitive also; for, in that case, both the French negatives come before the verb.

Not to kill,  
I do not kill,  
I did not kill,  
I shall not kill,  
I may not kill,  
I should not kill,  
I might not kill,

Ne pas tuer.  
Je ne tue pas.  
Je ne tuoïs pas.  
Je ne tuerais pas.  
Je ne tue pas.  
Je ne tuerois pas.  
Je ne tuasse pas.

Not killing,  
Not killed,

Ne tuant pas.  
Ne pas tué.

In the compound times of the verb, the negative comes before and after the auxiliary ; as :

Not to have killed,  
I have not killed,  
I had not killed,  
I shall not have killed,  
I may not have killed,  
I should not have killed,  
I might not have killed,  
Not having killed,  
Not been killed,

Ne pas avoir tué.  
Je n' ai pas tué.  
Je n' avois pas tué.  
Je n' aurai pas tué.  
Je n' aie pas tué.  
Je n' aurois pas tué.  
Je n' eusse pas tué.  
N' ayant pas tué.  
N' étant pas tué.

338. That is the way that we use the negatives with the *verb* ; and here, as you see, *ne* and *pas* together answer to our *not*. When, we in English, have a noun to use the negative with, and not a verb, we make use of *no* for our negative ; as : I have *no* wine. The French, however, adhere to their *ne* and *pas* ; as : je n' ai pas de vin. Sometimes, however, *point* is used instead of *pas*. There is only this difference in them, that *point* always requires *de* before the noun that follows ; and *pas* does not always require it. *Point* means, more decidedly, *no*, *not*, or *none at all*. But we may say indifferently ; Je n' ai *pas* d' argent ; je ne possède *pas* de terre ; or je n' ai *point* d' argent ; je ne possède *point* de terre. There are a few words that require *pas* exclusively ; but these are of such common use as to prevent all chance of error.

339. The French use *Non* to answer our *no*, when we put no other words ; as : will you go with me ? *no*. Voulez-vous aller avec moi ? *NON*. This *non* sometimes becomes *NON PAS*, when the speaker wishes to give a very decided negative. In cases where we should say : *no indeed !* The French would, perhaps, say, *non pas*. But, the *non* being sufficient, it may be best to use it only. When we say, *not that*, the French do very often make use of *non pas* ; as : I eat brown bread, *not that* I like it better than white : je mange du pain bis, *non pas que* je l' aime mieux que le blanc.

340. When there is a negative word, such as *pas*, *un passonne*, *aucun*, *nul*, *rien*, *nullement*, *guères*, *jamais*, and some few others, the *pas* or *point*, is not used at all ; but *ne* is ; as :

Elle n' a personne pour la consoler. She has nobody to console her.  
 Je n' ai jamais été dans ce pays-là. I have never been in that country.  
 Vous ne lui dites rien, You say nothing to him or to her.

There are some others which are *negatives in themselves*, and, of course, they do not require the double negation. There are two words, a good deal used, that require the double negative always, except when used with *dire* and *voir* ; *to say*, and *to see*. These two words are *mot* and *goutte*. The first means *word* : the last (in this negative sense) *not a jot*. The word *mot* is (in this sense) understood to mean *not a word*. They are two very common expressions, and are used thus :

Je ne disois mot, I said not a word.  
 Je ne voyois goutte, I saw nothing at all.

But, with other verbs than *dire* and *voir* these are not looked upon as negative words ; and, of course, they take the *ne* and *pas*, or *point*.

341. There are some words which require *ne* after them *before the next verb*, though there appears, at first sight, to be nothing of the negative quality in our English sentence that answers to any of those in which this *ne* is found ; as :

Il craint que sa récolte ne soit gâtée. He fears that his crop may be spoiled.  
 A moins qu' il ne soit blessé. Unless he should be wounded.

But, though there may be no *negative* in the English phrase, there is fear, or apprehension expressed, that something *may*, and perhaps, hope, that something *may not*, happen. If the same verbs do not express a feeling of this sort ; then the two negatives are used in the usual manner.

342. *Ne* is used without *pas* or *point*, before the verb that follows *plus*, *moins*, *mieux*, *autre* and *autrement* ; also before the verb that precedes *ni* ; and also after *que* and *si*, signifying *until*, *unless*, or *but*, when these come in a sentence, the former part of



Our BUT, besides this, is turned into French sometimes by *que* and *ne* coming after it. And again,

when the French *si* and *que* are used in the sense of *unless*, the *ne* is used without the *pas* or *point*.

4. *Il y a* is one of the IMPERSONAL verbs. You will see enough about them in the next letter. This impersonal means, sometimes, *it is*; and, when it is made use of in the *present time* of a verb used along with the verb *avoir*, the negative that follows it must be *ne* only; as: *il y a trois jours que vous n'avez mangé*; you have not eaten for these three days; or, literally, *it is three days that you have not eaten*.

5. Only *ne* is used with the verbs *oser*, *savoir*, *prendre*, *garde*, *cesser*, and *pouvoir*; and, as these are very important verbs, and are constantly recurring, you ought to pay particular attention to this rule.

Ils n'osent vous le dire,  
Il ne peut le faire,

They dare not tell it you.  
He cannot do it.

6. When we employ *why* in the asking of a question, and the French do not employ *pourquoi*, but *que*, to answer to our *why*: then the *ne* is used without *pas* or *point*; as:

*Que n'allez vous la voir? Why do you not go to see her?*

But, mind, if you make use of *pourquoi* in French, and not of *que*, you must employ the double negative; as: *pourquoi n'allez vous pas la voir?*

344. Read these rules over several times before you enter upon the Exercise. I do not suppose, that you will carry them all in your head; but, some part of some of them you will make fast in your mind at once; and, as you *read* in books, (for now you may begin to read French) these rules will occur to you; for, twenty times in an hour, perhaps, you will meet with passages to illustrate them.

### EXERCISE X.

1. They have not been thither these four or five years.
2. I shall not now give you such short sentences to translate as I have given you up to this time.

3. You have not been in that country for a long while.
4. I have not seen the man who came here last night.
5. Certainly I will not give you more than ten pounds.
6. You will have been only six years in your office.
7. You have no land and no flocks.
8. That is not a good man. That is not true, Sir.
9. There is no straw and no hay in the loft.
10. I have none of those trees that you sold me.
11. I had none of the cattle that he spoke to me of.
12. I have seen none of them for some time.
13. Lend me some money. I cannot; for I have none.
14. Have they been here to-day? No.
15. Not that I dislike the people of that country.
16. Not that I cannot go if I like it.
17. Will you go with me? No: I will not.
18. She can neither read nor write.
19. He cannot write, neither can he read.
20. We shall not sail to-morrow; and, perhaps, not next day.
21. Neither master nor man will be here.
22. Neither he nor his wife nor their children have good health.
23. They have but twenty acres of land.
24. We speak to them but very rarely.
25. There is only one good man in the company.
26. Why do you not go to see your estate?
27. Why do you live continually in the town?
28. He does nothing but talk and sing.
29. They do not know what to do.
30. Did I not tell you that you could not come in?
31. Have you brought me a bag of gold? No, indeed!
32. It is not that I dislike the dinner; but I do not like the manner of cooking it.
33. He does not cease to talk and make a noise.
34. They dare not do what they threaten to do.
35. They cannot come to-morrow, I am very sure.
36. You neither eat nor drink with us; and why not my friends?
37. Why will you not sit down and dine with us?
38. No: I am much obliged to you: I cannot stop now

39. Well, then, come to-morrow. I cannot indeed.
40. They have only bread and water to eat and drink.
41. Man is not to live on bread alone.
42. I doubt not but he will pay you what he owes you.
43. I cannot write if I have not a candle.
44. I shall not write to her unless she write to me first.
45. Take care that you be not deceived.
46. There is more wine than is wanted.
47. He said more than was necessary.
48. I will hinder them from doing mischief in the country.
49. I do not deny that I said that he was a bad man.
50. She is older than people think.
51. She is less rich than was thought.
52. He is quite different from what I expected.
53. They are better off than you thought.
54. I am afraid that he will come too soon.
55. I am afraid that he will not come soon enough.
56. She apprehends that there will be a quarrel.
57. They are afraid that their mother is ill.
58. They are afraid that the army will come.
59. They are afraid that the army will not come.
60. Not to talk too much of the matter.
61. It is good not to go too fast.
62. Do you think that this is too long? Not at all.
63. Not to do according to your word is very bad.
64. Is not this a very cold summer?
65. Not colder than the last, though cold enough.

345. We now come to the INTERROGATIVES. When you consider how large a part of all speaking and writing consists of QUESTIONS, you will want nothing said by me to convince you of the importance of this part of your study. Let us take the verb *TUER* again, here, and conjugate it, in the interrogative form, as we did in the negative form; for, you will observe, that, there must be *a verb* belonging to every negative and every question. I shall conjugate only a part of the verb; because it would be waste of room to put the whole conjugation.

Present time, Singular.	{	tué-je ?	do I kill ?
		tues-tu ?	doest thou kill ?
		tue-t-il ?	does he kill ?
Present time, Plural.	{	tuons-nous ?	do we kill ?
		tuez-vous ?	do you kill ?
		tuent-ils ?	do they kill ?
Past time, Singular.	{	tuois-je ?	did I kill ?
		tuois-tu ?	didst thou kill ?
		tuoit-il ?	did he kill ?
Past time, Plural.	{	tufions-nous ?	did we kill ?
		tufiez-vous ?	did you kill ?
		tuoient-ils ?	did they kill ?

That is enough. You see (and, indeed, you saw it long ago), the French have no *do* and *did* and *will* and *shall* and the like. They ask the question by the verb itself. They say, *kill I? kill we? kill they?* and so on. Nothing can be plainer than this. But, before I proceed to show how questions are put, if there be a noun instead of a pronoun, let me explain a little matter that may appear odd to you. You see all these French verbs connected with the pronouns by *hyphens*. This is a general rule. You see it in all cases. But, in the first question of all, you see an acute *accent* over the *é* in *tué*. This is to soften the sound; and the accent is used, with this verb, only in this particular case. See paragraph 191, for a full explanation of this. And, see the close of that paragraph for the reason why there is a *t* and two hyphens placed after *tue* in the third question above.

346. Well, then, the above is the manner in which the French put questions with the *pronoun*. Let us now see how they put questions where there is a noun; where they are asking something about a third party, and making use of the noun and not the pronoun. They begin by naming the party; as:

Richard est-il venu ?	Is Richard come ?
Pierre est-il malade ?	Is Peter sick ?
Mes sœurs sont-elles arrivées ?	Are my sisters arrived ?
Vos chevaux courent-ils ?	Do your horses run ?

347. But, there is another manner of asking questions in French; and, indeed, it is the manner most

in use. The question, let the persons or things be of what number or of what gender they may, begins with these words, **EST-CE QUE**. I put them in large letters; for you must become exceedingly well acquainted with them, they being everlastingly upon a French tongue:

Est-ce que vous avez dîné ?	Have you dined ?
Est-ce qu' elle s' en va ?	Is she going away ?
Est-ce qu' il se porte bien ?	Is he well ?
Est-ce qu' il fait froid ?	Is it cold ?
Est-ce que nous avons de l' argent ?	Have we any money ?
Est-ce que Richard est venu ?	Is Richard come ?
Est-ce que Jean et Pierre sont malades ?	Are John and Peter sick ?

What, then, is this *Est-ce que* ? Word for word it is: *is this that* ; or, *is it that*. And the first of these questions is, in fact, this: "*is it that* you have dined ?" The French make use of *ce*, and not of *il*, as was observed in paragraph 321, (which I beg you to look at directly). They make use of *this*, and not of *it* ; but, with this exception, there is nothing at all strange in the question, "*is it that* you have dined." We frequently, in English, make use of expressions like this; "*Is it that* you disbelieve me that you do not attend to me ?" "*Is it that* I am beneath your notice ; or, *is it that* you cannot see your danger in neglecting my advice ?" We do not, in English, make use of this manner, except in serious discourse and writing ; but, the French make use of it in their familiar discourse. It rids them of all the stiffness and awkwardness that their questions would otherwise have. *Tué-je ?* and *tue-t-il ?* for instance, become *Est-ce que je tue ?* and *Est-ce qu' il tue ?* And all is smooth and harmonious.

348. But, let me beg of you to pay great attention to this *Est-ce* ; for, it is surprising how great are the functions that it performs. Sometimes it has the *que* after it, and sometimes before it.

Est-ce qu' elle est riche ?	Is she rich ?
N' est-ce pas qu' elle est riche ?	Is she not rich ?
Qu' est-ce que c' est ?	What is it ?
Qu' est-ce que c' est que Jean dit ?	What does John say ?

Literally it is, *Which is this that this is that John says.* Never think it wild, or foolish. It is all right enough, and that you will find in a short time. Do not waste your time in finding fault with the French language: *learn it as quickly as you can.*

Qu' est-ce que c' est que cela ?      What is that ?

349. I will now give you an Exercise with a great variety of questions ; and, before I close it, I will introduce negatives as well as interrogatives, and both in abundance. Go through this Exercise with great care ; and, if you make a tolerably correct translation of it, you may truly say that you know something of the French language.

### EXERCISE XI.

1. Are you talking to the gentlemen about the house ?
2. Did the army march thence this morning ?
3. Will the carpenter come to-morrow ?
4. Why will he not come directly ?
5. Was the house on fire when you were in the town ?
6. Does not Richard come to-night ?
7. Did he strike you ?
8. Did they take away your coach and horses ?
9. Did you think of that ?
10. Is that your book ? Yes, it is.
11. Is that your brother ? Yes, it is.
12. Do you talk of her very often ?
13. Does he go in search of the merchandise that he has lost ?
14. Will they pay us what they owe us ?
15. Will they have paid us when they have paid ten pounds more ?
16. Would they have thought of it ?
17. Has he any of it left ?
18. Do you give it to me ?
19. Did she tell it to him ?
20. Did he not tell it to her ?
21. Will they speak of it to you ?
22. I get up in the morning.
23. I do not get up.
24. Do I get up ?

25. Do I not get up ?
26. Does he not get up early ?
27. Have you not told it to me ?
28. Had she told it to him ?
29. Will they have paid it to us ?
30. Would he have spoken of it to you ?
31. Did you seek for your money in his box ?
32. Did you find some of it there ?
33. Will they not strike you and hurt you ?
34. Does he not speak of it to them ?
35. Would he not have done you great injury ?
36. Do you not give it to me ?
37. Do you not apply yourself to the French ?
38. Did she not tell it to him ?
39. Will they not give it to us ?
40. Will he not speak of it to you ?
41. Have you not told it to me ?
42. Had she not told it to him ?
43. Does corn grow well in that land ?
44. Are not the trees very fine in the woods of America ?
45. No : they are not very fine in all parts of the country.
46. But the Planes are very large, are they not ?
47. Would he not have spoken of it to you ?
48. Would not Thomas come, if you were to send for him ?
49. Are the pheasants and hares all destroyed ?
50. No : but a great many of them have been caught.
51. I do not tell you not to go thither.
52. I did not tell you not to speak of it.
53. Not to talk too much of oneself.
54. I have told him not to pay more than twenty pounds.
55. Is he not a captain, or a colonel ?
56. Will the fleet go to Jamaica ?
57. Do you not think that it will be fine ?
58. You have great estates, not to mention your ready-money.
59. Will John not be there sooner than will be necessary ?



60. I do not think that he will.  
 61. Do you see nothing at all in it ?  
 62. Has he not said a word to you about the matter ?  
 63. Do you not fear that the money will come too late ?  
 64. Did they see nobody going that way ?  
 65. Have the labourers but little to eat and drink ?  
 66. Is not that the poorest man who has the least to eat and to wear ?  
 67. They will never forgive him unless he ask pardon of them.  
 68. Is not mine a very pretty room ?  
 69. Is not this Exercise a very long one ?  
 70. It is very long, but, I hope not more long than useful.

## LETTER XXI.

### SYNTAX OF IMPERSONALS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

350. You must now go back to paragraph 136. There I have explained the nature of the *Impersonals*. You must read from that paragraph to 141 very attentively. Pray, observe, that what I am now going to say you will be able to understand but very imperfectly, unless you first go back and read very attentively the paragraphs just mentioned.

351. There are, then, four principal IMPERSONALS; that is to say; IL Y A; IL EST, OR C' EST; IL FAUT; and IL FAIT. Let us take them one by one.

352. IL Y A answers to our *there is*, or *there are*, and *some*; as:

there is a hawk on the tree,	il y a un faucon sur l'arbre.
there are birds in the nest,	il y a des oiseaux dans le nid.
some men like that,	il y a des hommes qui aiment cela.
some of them did not like it,	il y en avoit qui ne l'aimoient pas.
there will be ten bushels of wheat.	il y aura dix boisseaux de blé.

*This impersonal changes its form to express time;*

not for any other purpose. You see, in the above examples, the present *il y a*, the past *il y avoit*, and the future *il y aura*.

353. We, in speaking of distances from place to place, make use of *it is*; as: *it is* twenty-six miles from London to Windsor. The French, in such cases, make use of *il y a*, and say, *il y a vingt six milles de Londres à Windsor*; which is, mind, literally speaking, *it there has* twenty-six miles from London to Windsor. And this is just as reasonable as to say *it is*; for, one might ask, *what it?* What do you mean by this *it*?

354. The same rule applies to our *it is*, when employed to designate a space of time; as: *it is* four months since I came hither: *il y a quatre mois que je suis ici*. When we speak of something that happened sometime ago, the French answer our phrase by *il y a* and the present time of the verb; as: that tree was planted *fifty years ago*: *il y a cinquante ans que cet arbre est planté*.

355. In questions, where we begin with *how long*, or *how far*, and then proceed with our *is it*; in these cases the French begin with *combien*; that is, *how much* or *how many*. You know that *how* is *comment*, and that *far* is *loin*. But, you must not, when you go to France, and, are on the road from Calais to Paris, and want to know *how far* you have to go to get to St. Omer's; you must not in this case, say to the person to whom you address yourself, *comment loin* (how far), but *combien* (how much, or many). Thus it is, too, with regard to spaces of time, and with regard to numbers. And, mind, when a question is asked, the order of the words of the impersonal is reversed. It is *y a-t-il*, and not *il y a*. You see, that the *t* and the double hyphen are used here. You have seen the reason for this at the close of paragraph 345, at which, however, you may now take another look. Take now a few examples.

How many cities are there in France? *Combien de villes y a-t-il en France?*

How much sand is there in the cart? *Combien de sable y a-t-il dans la charrette?*

*How far is it from this to St. Omer?* *Combien y a-t-il d'ici à St. Omer?*

*How long is it since you began?* *Combien y a-t-il que vous avez commencé?*

You see, then, the extensive use of this Impersonal. It is constantly on the tongue of those who speak French. Great care must be taken to give it its proper place in the sentence. That place is different under different circumstances; but attention will very soon make you master of the matter.

356. *IL EST*, or *c' EST*. Look at paragraph 321. I had there, in speaking of the Demonstrative Pronoun, *ce*, to explain to you the *reason* of this *c' est*; but, I then referred you to this place for instructions as to the manner of using *c' est*. Literally *il est* means *it is*, and *c' est* (that is *ce est*) means *this is*, as I have before shown. In some cases, they may, as impersonal verbs, be made use of indifferently; but in other cases, they cannot. The sense will in a great measure, instruct us when one is to be used, and when the other; but this may be always relied on, that, when the impersonal can be translated into English by *that*, *this*, or *what*, the French must be *c' est*, and not *il est*; as:

that is what pleases me,	<i>c' est ce qui me plaît.</i>
this is what I thought,	<i>c' est ce que je pensais.</i>

And not *il est* cela, and *il est* ce que.

357. When the noun which the impersonal refers to is *not a person*, and when there is no adjective coming next after the impersonal, or when the word *thing* is, under any circumstances, expressed in the sentence, *c' est*, and not *il est*, is to be used. But, if there be an adjective coming directly after the impersonal, and if the word *thing* be not mentioned in the sentence, and if the noun referred to be a person, *il est* is used; but, even then, not always.

358. This impersonal is sometimes used instead of *il y a*; but, in this case, *il est* is used, and not *c' est*; as; *Il est des gens qui ne sont jamais contents*: *there are people who are never contented.* We may say also, *il y a des gens qui ne sont jamais*

contens. But, mind, you cannot *always* use *il est* for *il y a*. It is only when the noun referred to is a plural and of a general and indefinite character like *gens*. And, mind, you cannot employ *c' est* to supply the place of *il y a*.

359. *Il est*, and not *c' est*, is used in speaking of portions of time, as counted by the clock, or as relating to the different times of the day. The French do not say, *it is twelve o'clock* (which is a very odd phrase), but, *it is twelve hours*. They say, it is *one hour*, it is *two hours*, and so on. Now, in saying this they do not use *c' est*, but *il est*; thus, *il est une heure, il est deux heures*. But, in answers to *questions* relating to time, *c' est* may be used. When we ask what it is o'clock, they say, *quelle heure est-il?* and not *quelle heure est-ce?*

360. I noticed in the rules on the articles, that we say he is *a* captain, she is *a* mantua-maker, and so on, and that the French say, he is captain, she is mantua-maker, without the article. In these cases they use the personal pronoun *de* and *il*; but, if the French use the article, they use *c' est*.

361. In all other cases *c' est* may be, and, indeed, ought to be used. This impersonal may be used in the *plural* of the verb of the *third person*. It may, indeed, be also used in the singular of that person; but, it may be used in the plural; as:

*c' est les loups qui ont tué les moutons.*  
*ce sont les loups qui ont tué les moutons.*

But, in interrogations the impersonal adheres, in all cases, to the third person singular of the verb *to be*; as:

*Est-ce les loups qui ont tué les moutons?*  
*Est-ce le loup qu'on a attrapé?*

362. *IL FAUT* comes next. This impersonal, like most other good and useful things, is to be rendered available to us only by great labour and attention. I explained the source and the nature of it in paragraph 139. I am now about to explain to you the manner of using it. But, I must beg you to read that paragraph very attentively. If I did not suppose,

that you would do this, I should repeat the whole of it again here ; for, that which I am now going to say is nothing ; that is, it will be of no use, unless you first read that paragraph with great care.

363. You see, then, that no two things can be more unlike than the two languages are in this respect. The *il faut* consists of the pronoun that answers to our *it* and of a part of the verb *to be necessary*; and, taken together, they answer to our *must*, but, in some cases to a great deal more than our *must*. For instance, *faut-il aller chez lui ?* Is it necessary to go to his house ? Then, our *must* cannot be translated literally into French. *I must, we must*, and the like, cannot be expressed in French at all, if they stand thus without other words. *I must go.* To answer to this the French say, *il faut que j'aille* ; that is, *it is necessary that I go*, or, *I am obliged to go*, or *there is compulsion for my going*.

364. And, mind, this *il faut* applies to all persons and all things. To me, to you, to him, to her, to it; and, in short to all nouns and pronouns. It states that *there is necessity*, or *obligation* ; then comes the noun, or pronoun, representing the party obliged; then comes the statement of what the necessity or obligation is to produce ; as :

il faut que je fasse,	I must make.
il faut que vous fassiez,	you must make.
il faut qu' il fasse,	he must make.
il faut qu' ils fassent,	they must make.
il faut que nous fassions,	we must make.

There is, in these cases, always a *que*, you see, coming after the *il faut* ; and you have seen the *reason* of this before. The French words, being literally translated, mean it is necessary *that* I make, and so on; and *que*, in this case, means, *that*.

365. But, it is not thus in all cases ; for, there is no *que* when *il faut* is followed by the infinitive of the verb ; as : *il faut aller* : it is necessary *to go*. Mind, the infinitive is often used thus in French to answer to English phrases in which the verb is not *in the infinitive* ; as :

il faut faire son devoir, { one must do one's duty.  
 { we must do our duty.  
 { they must do their duty.

And, in many cases, the phrase may take this turn in English, one's duty *must be done*.

366. Where we, in English, express a *want* of something, the French sometimes make use of the verb *avoir*, followed by *besoin* (want) and *de*; as: *I want a stick*: j' ai besoin d' un bâton. This French phrase literally is, *I have want of a stick*. And this is an expression in great use.

j' ai besoin d' or, I want some gold.  
 vous aviez besoin d' une chaise, you wanted a chair.  
 ils auront besoin d' une brouette, they will want a wheelbarrow.

Now, mind, *il faut* is, in many cases, made use of instead of *avoir besoin de*. But, then, the phrase must take a different form, and the pronoun must be in a different case; as:

il me faut de l' or, I want some gold.  
 il vous falloit une chaise, you wanted a chair.  
 il leur faudra une brouette, they will want a wheelbarrow.

Pay great attention to this turn of the phrase; for, it is in these seemingly little matters that much of the most useful part of your study lies.

367. Sometimes we express *want* by the use of the *passive verb*: that is to say, by the passive participle of *to want* and the verb *to be*; as: men *are wanted* to make an army. Here *il faut* is the expression; as: il faut des hommes pour faire une armée.

Pour faire la guerre, il faut de To make war there must be  
 l' argent, money.

368. When we speak of the manner of doing a thing, or of the manner of being, or of the manner of conducting oneself, and employ, in phrases of this description, *ought* or *should* as: You do not know what you *ought*. In these cases the French employ *il faut*; as:

you work as you ought, vous travaillez comme il faut.  
 they do not write as they should, ils n' écrivent pas comme il faut.  
 they do what they ought, il font ce qu' il faut.  
 I have what I ought to have, j' ai ce qu' il me faut.

*Comme il faut* means, also, as it is *necessary to be*, as it is *proper to be*, and hence comes the expressions *des gens comme il faut*, *une femme comme il faut*, and so on; which means, *respectable people*, *a respectable woman*; or literally, *people as they ought to be*, *a woman as she ought to be*.

369. IL FAIT is the last of these impersonal verbs. Literally it means, *it makes*. This is an expression so different in its nature from that by which we effect the same purposes, that it is necessary to notice it; though this impersonal is not of very extensive use. It is nearly confined to phrases relating to the weather, or the state of the air and sky, or that of the ground as affected by the elements. We say, for instance: *it is fine weather*: the French say, *il fait beau temps*; that is, *it makes fine weather*; for *temps* is *weather* as well as *time*. Thus, they say:

il fait froid,  
il fait chaud,  
il fait jour,  
il fait sombre,

it is cold.  
it is hot.  
it is light.  
it is dark.

*Il fait* is used in some other cases, when the English *it is* relates to one's being well or ill off with respect to circumstances of place. But this is rather a liberty than otherwise. As to *rain*, there is the verb and the noun; *pleuvoir* and *pluie*; and it is the same with *hail* and *snow*. However, the French frequently say, *tomber* (to fall) *de la pluie*, *de la grêle*, *de la neige*; and they even put *il fait* before these nouns as well as before the adjectives, *jour et nuit*, *light and dark*, not *day and night*.

370. Now, before I give you the Exercise on these IMPERSONAL verbs, I ought to observe, that every phrase may be called an *Impersonal*, if *it* be the nominative, and if there be no noun to which the *it* relates; as: *it suits* well to ride on horseback. Here is no noun that the *it* refers to; or, at least, there is no noun that you can name. The verb *VALOIR* (to be worth) is one of those which is often used in the impersonal form, and it is in great use.

Employed in this way, it answers to our *is better*, *was better*, *is not so good*, and the like ; as :

it is better,	il vaut mieux.
it was better,	il valoit mieux.
it will be better,	il vaudra mieux.
it is not so good as,	il ne vaut pas tant que.
it was not so good as,	il ne valait pas tant que.
it will not be so good as,	il ne vaudra pas tant que.

This is, then, a word of great consequence. The French, you see, say, it *is worth better*, and not, it *is better*. And, we sometimes say, in English, that one thing is *better worth* a pound than another is worth a penny. You know this verb well: you have it fully conjugated in your THIRD TASK; and you have it in your table of irregular verbs on your card. From this verb comes the appellation of VAURIEN, which means, a *good-for-nothing* person. This verb, used as impersonal, answers also to our *worth while*, the French using *peine* instead of *while*; thus: *it is not worth while*: il ne vaut pas la peine. That is: it is not worth the *pain*.

### EXERCISE XII.

1. It is fine weather in that country almost all the year.
2. Last autumn it was very bad weather in America.
3. In that country it rains almost continually.
4. They say, that, at Lima, it never rains at all.
5. There are seven acres of land and six very fine houses.
6. There is a great quantity of mud at the bottom of the pond.
7. You must take care how you prune peach trees.
8. There is a great variety of peaches.
9. There are many of them in that garden.
10. There are wood-buds and fruit-buds.
11. There was a terrible out-cry in the town.
12. If it be stone-fruit trees that you have to prune.
13. There are many of them there.
14. As I have already observed.
15. You must examine, and be sure whether there be a good wood-bud.



16. See that there is no corner lost, and no plat that remains uncropped.
17. You must not let any of them come in.
18. We want fine weather for the harvest.
19. Do not waste your time in talking : do what you ought.
20. All the respectable people of the village think well of it.
21. I want friends to assist me in so great an enterprise.
22. To get good corn and meat there must be good land.
23. Plenty of manure and good tillage are necessary to produce good hops.
24. There were twenty, the whole of the twenty were wanted, but they left us only seven.
25. This is an act that we must never forget.
26. It was his servant who told it them.
27. There were sixty houses knocked down by the cannon ball.
28. It is better to remain as you are for a few months.
29. It is a great deal better to be poor and healthy than rich and unhealthy.
30. I shall go to France ; that is to say, if I be in good health.
31. It is very bad to travel when you are not well.
32. It is very painful to be obliged to leave you in your present state.
33. He is an honest man. He is a knave.
34. He is honest. He is knavish. She is good and wise.
35. It was your father who gave you that diamond.
36. Was it they who did so much mischief in the village ?
37. It was they who cut down the trees and set fire to the houses.
38. No : it was she that ordered it to be done.
39. I do not know that it was she who gave the order.
40. My uncle has been dead these forty years.
41. I have lived here for more than twenty years.
42. It is seventeen miles from this place to that.

- How far is it from this to the top of the mountain?  
 How long will it be before you come back?  
 He has been fifteen years at his work.  
 How many oxen are in the park?  
 And how many of them are in the stable?  
 People must have children to be able to feel for  
 parents.  
 Must I not have a good deal of patience?  
 Must there not have been great misconduct some-  
 where?  
 Must she not have had a great deal of property?  
 Has there not been a very long debate to-night?  
 Has there ever been a longer one?  
 There is only that which is not useful.  
 I beg of you not to come; that is, if you cannot  
 get a coach.  
 Are there any vineyards in this country?  
 No: there are not any that I know of. What!  
 are there none?  
 It is the finest land that was ever seen; but the  
 climate is bad.  
 How far do you think it is to his house, and do  
 you think it will be late before we can get to it?  
 It is about four miles, and, I suppose, that we  
 can get to it by nine o'clock.  
 Will it be dark before we can get to it? No:  
 for it is light now till past nine.  
 It is very dirty since the last rain; and it seems  
 as if it would rain again before to-morrow night.  
 It has been a very fine day to-day.  
 Do you believe that? Is there any one that be-  
 lieves it? Is there any one of them who does  
 not despise the man who says it?  
 Must not a man be a wretch, then, who affects to  
 believe that there is any truth in it?

must not dismiss this subject without a remark or  
 upon the nature of the impersonals. In my  
 English Grammar, I contended, that Dr. Lowth,  
 LINDLEY MURRAY, and others, were in error in  
 posing, that *plural nouns and pronouns ought*

*never to be placed after our* *IT*, used as an impersonal. I gave an instance in this phrase: "It is the *dews and showers* which *make* the grass grow." I contended that it was proper, because the verb *is* did not relate to *dews and showers*; but, to *IT*, which it meant, if well looked into, a *state of things*. Now it is the same in French; for, we say, "*c' EST les loups qui tuent les moutons.*" I, in my Grammar, paragraph 60, contended, that though there was no *visible* noun, to which the *it* related; yet, that there would be found to be a noun *understood*, if the matter were well looked into. I took as an instance: "*it will rain:*" and, I said, that the full meaning was this: "A STATE OF THINGS *called rain* WILL BE." In consulting the work of Monsieur RESTAUT, I find it agreeing with me as to this matter. He takes the instance of, "*il pleut,*" and he says, that the full meaning is: "*QUELQUE CHOSE qui est la pluie EST.*" The utility of this explanation is great; for, it gives you *the reason* for using nouns and pronouns in the plural after *it is, it was, it will be*, and so forth; and, to do a thing well with a reason is a great deal better than to do it well without a reason. We say, in English: *IT IS THEY* who write. Bishop LOWTH says, that this is *not correct*. No? What will he put, then? The French, however, settle the question for us; for, they say *c' EST EUX* qui écrivent: *c' EST LES LOUPS* qui tuent les mouton.

## LETTER XXII.

### SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

371. I went, in the Etymology, very fully into the subject of Adjectives. You will now read what I there said. You will find it between paragraphs 101 and 111, both inclusive; and you must read those ten over now with great care; because, if you do *not*, you cannot well understand the matter now

about to be addressed to you. In those paragraphs I very fully described the nature and properties and offices of this part of speech; I described its changes for the purpose of expressing *gender* and *number* and *comparison*; I gave the rules for the making of these changes: and, I told you, that you would learn from the *Syntax* how to *place* adjectives in sentences, which, as I then told you, is a matter of some importance. However, there are other things to attend to now besides the proper placing of the adjectives.

372. You have seen, that adjectives change their form to express *gender* and *number*. That is all, however; for they have no change to express *person*, *time*, *case*, or *mode*. Therefore, this is not a part of speech so full of difficulties as the *pronoun* and the *verb*. There are two things to attend to in using the adjective: first, to see that it *agrees* in *number* and *gender* with the noun to which it relates; and, next, to see that it be put in its *proper place*. As to the *agreement*, enough was said in the Etymology, except with regard to one or two particular cases, which I am now about to notice. The adjective is put in the *plural*, though it relate to a *singular* noun, when that noun is a noun of multitude and followed by a plural noun in the possessive case; as:

la plupart des dames furent *malheureuses*,

and not

la plupart des dames fut *malheureuse*.

If *plupart* had not been followed by *des dames* (the noun in the possessive case) the adjective must have been in the singular:

la plupart fut *malheureuse*,

and not

la plupart furent *malheureuses*.

Another of the exceptions, alluded to above, is this: Adjectives are put in the plural when they relate to *more than one singular noun*. To be sure; for, two, or more, singulars make a plural; as: Richard et

Thomas sont *malades*, and not, *malade*. This is the general rule: but, when there are two singular nouns to which the adjective relates, and when these nouns have the same, or, nearly the same, meaning, writers sometimes put the adjective in the singular. I merely mention this because it is a liberty that writers take; but, I do not recommend you to take it. You may say:

un goût et un discernement *excellent*;

but it is safer to say,

un goût et un discernement *excellens*.

As to agreement in *gender*, you must observe, that, if there be more than one noun, to which the adjective relates, and, if they be of *different genders*, the adjective must be put in the *masculine*; as:

la vache et le bœuf sont *bons*; and not *bonnes*.

But if there be two or more nouns, one or more of which is feminine, and if in such a case, a feminine noun come *immediately* before the adjective, the adjective is, or, at least, may be, put in the *feminine*; as:

le bœuf et la vache *blanche*; and not *blancs*.

And, observe, the adjective is put in the *singular*, too, in this case, though there are *two nouns* going before it. However, as it certainly would not be *incorrect* to say, le bœuf et la vache *blancs*, I should employ that phrase instead of the other.—These exceptions, though worthy of notice, are but mere trifles. Nine hundred and ninety-nine times out of every thousand the adjective must agree in number and gender with the noun, or nouns, to which it obviously relates.

373. Care must, therefore, be taken to put the adjective in its *proper place*. You have, as you have already been taught, first to take care, that your adjective agree in *gender* and *number* with its *noun*. The next thing is the *proper place* for the adjective. You are speaking of a cow, for instance. You want to say, in French, that she is *brown*. You know that the singular number of the adjective is

without an *s* ; you know also, that the feminine of this adjective, is *brune*, there being an *e* to *brun*. But, you do not know where to *put* this adjective. You do not know whether it be to come before or after the noun *vache*. Observe, then, that adjectives which express *colours* are put *after* the noun ; as : *vache brune*.

Also those that express *nationality* ; as : du drap *Anglois*.

Also those that express *shape* ; as : chapeau *rond*.

Also those that express the qualities or condition of the elements, or that relate to any natural productions ; as : de l' eau *froide*.

Also those which end in *ic*, *ique*, and *if* ; as : un verbe *passif*.

Also those ending in *able* ; as : un état *misérable*.

Also those ending in *esque*, *île*, *ule* ; as : une pièce *burlesque*.

Also the participles when they are used as adjectives ; as : un homme *respecté*.

374. Adjectives put *before* the noun are all those of *number* ; as : une porte, *six* carosses ; le *premier* bourg, le *second* village. The Royal style indeed, makes Henry the *Fourth*, Louis the *Eighteenth*, and so on.

Also pronouns when they act the part of adjectives ; as : *chaque* prune.

Also the following ones, of very common use : *beau*, *bon*, *brave*, *cher*, *chétif*, *grand*, *gros*, *jeune*, *mauvais*, *méchant*, *meilleur*, *moindre*, *petit*, *saint*, *vieux*, *vrai*.

375. When there are two adjectives used with the same noun, you *may* sometimes put them before the noun ; but you cannot do wrong in putting them after it. If there be more than two adjectives, they *must* follow the noun. There are some exceptions to these rules ; but these are of no importance. If you attend well to the above, you will, in a short time, place your adjectives properly.

376. So much for the *placing* of the adjectives. We have three more things to attend to relating to

this part of speech. The first of these is, that there are certain adjectives, which, in French, require the preposition *de* before the *next noun, pronoun, or infinitive verb*; as: capable *de* tout; capable *d'* aller. Then there are other adjectives, which require the preposition *à* before the next noun, pronoun, or infinitive; as: semblable *à* l'or. These adjectives, are, however, too many in number to be inserted in a rule. If, at any time you have a doubt about the matter, the Dictionary will put you right; for, it has the *à*, or the *de*, placed after those adjectives that require these prepositions after them.

377. The next thing is, that, adjectives of dimension come before the words which express the measure, and not after those words, as ours do; as:

Une rivière *large de* trois cents A river three hundred paces  
pas, broad.

Une tour *haute de* soixante A tower sixty feet high.  
pieds,

The French, however, have other modes of expressing dimensions. They put the noun instead of the adjective; une rivière qui a trois cents pas *de largeur*. Thus they make use of *longueur* and of *hauteur*, leaving out the adjective altogether. However, this is no very important matter: one Exercise of a dozen sentences is quite enough to prevent you from ever making a mistake in the use of these words of dimension.

378. Lastly comes COMPARISON; but, that has been so fully explained before, in the paragraphs from 101 to 111, and again more recently in the use of *que* and *moins* and *plus* with the negatives; that it would be, I hope, a waste of time, to say any thing more upon the subject of comparison.

### EXERCISE XIII.

1. The tower is four hundred and forty feet high.
2. Your room is twenty feet long and ten wide.
3. A square field and a high gate.
4. A saucy, lazy, and foolish man.
5. A young and fine ox, and a pretty little dog.

6. He is a great deal older than she is
7. You are not so tall as he by a great deal.
8. They have more than six thousand acres of land.
9. This is a very bad hat; the worst I ever had in my life.
10. This is a better day than yesterday; but this is cold and miserable enough.
11. This is the worst road that I ever saw.
12. That is the greatest rogue that exists.
13. Have you many bottles of wine in your cellar?
14. Give him a little wine and a few grapes.
15. I have not much oil, but have a great many olives.
16. Has he not many horses and a great deal of hay?
17. Give me a few nuts, and bring a little of that sugar.
18. He is equally zealous in a good and in a bad cause.
19. Sixty thousand pounds for an estate and household goods.
20. One thousand eight hundred and twenty-four.
21. London, fourth of June, one thousand eight hundred and twenty-four.
22. George the Fourth and Charles the Tenth reign at this time.
23. I like an open enemy better than a secret one.
24. You are unworthy of honour and distinction.
25. He was overjoyed at seeing her arrive.
26. They are perfectly free from blame on that account.
27. He is fit for any sort of business.
28. They are given to all sorts of mischief.
29. We are subject to a legal process for your neglect
30. He is a man very much esteemed in that country.
31. She is a French woman, he is an Englishman, she is an American woman.
32. A French hat, an English coat, an American shoe.
33. A black hat, a blue coat, a white shoe.
34. White as snow, black as the chimney, heavy as lead.
35. You are taller than he by two inches.
36. I do not think that he is so tall as she.



37. They are the most wicked of all mankind.

38. It is the most unjust and most abominable of acts.

It should be noticed, that there are some adjectives, which have one sense when placed before the noun, and another sense when placed after it; as: *un homme honnête*, means, a *civil* or well-behaved man. But, *un honnête homme*, means, an *honest* man. *Un grand homme* means, a man of great merit; but, *un homme grand*, means a man of a great size. *Une femme sage* means a *sensible and modest* woman; but *une sage femme* means a *midwife*. However, there are very few adjectives that vary their meaning thus, and you will find little difficulty in the use of them. It is, nevertheless, a matter not to be disregarded. I know of no adjectives that thus change their meaning, except, *bon, commun, mauvais, brave, certain, cruel, furieux, galan, gentil, grand, gros, honnête, pauvre, plaisant, sage, vilain*. There are some words, which some persons call adjectives, which are *indeclinable*; that is, which do not change their form to express number and gender. But these are, in fact, *adverbs*, and not adjectives: they express *place, time, or manner*, and not *quality or characteristic mark*.

## LETTER XXIII.

### SYNTAX OF VERBS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

379. This, as you have been before told, is the most important of all the parts of speech. There can, as I have observed in my English Grammar, be no sentence, there can be no sense in words, unless there be *a verb*, either expressed or understood. Each of the other parts of speech may, alternately, be dispensed with; but, the verb never can. This being the case, you will, I hope, set about

the study of this letter with an uncommon degree of resolution to be industrious and attentive.

380. You must, that you may have the whole subject clearly before you, that you may not drop abruptly into the middle of it, go back to paragraph 86, where I have described the nature and character and functions of the verb, and shown how it differs from other parts of speech. You must then go to paragraph 112, and read from that to paragraph 141 inclusive. When you have done that, and in a very attentive manner, cast your eye over the Conjugations; and then come to the subject of the present Letter.

381. The parts of the Grammar, which I have here referred to, teach you what a verb is, distinguish it from other parts of speech, show you all the variations of form to which it is liable, tell you how it changes that form to fit itself to divers circumstances; but, it remains for me to tell you something about the manner of *using it in sentences*, something about that *concord* and that *government*, which I mentioned in paragraph 247; something about when the verb is to be used in this number, and when in that number; when in this person, and when in that; when in this time, and when in that; and, when in this mode, and when in that. I shall, therefore, place my matter under four heads: first, *The Number and Person*, because they depend one on the other: second, *The Times*: third, *The Modes*: fourth, *The Participles*.

382. The NUMBER AND PERSON. The verb must have a noun or a pronoun used with it. The verb speaks of an action, a feeling, or a state of being of *some person or thing*. Therefore there must be a noun or a pronoun to express that person or thing. And, whatever person and number that noun or pronoun may be in, the verb must be in the same person and number. This is what is called agreement, or concord. The ploughmen in Hampshire invariably say, *they walks*, and the like; and it is very curious, that those of Norfolk and Suffolk as

invariably say, *he walk*, and the like. The illiterate country people in France say, *j'allons* and *j'avons*. This is not to be expected from any person who has ever looked into a book; but in writing French, we English people must take care, or else we shall fall into very gross errors of this sort.

383. When two or more nouns, or pronouns, are the nominative of the same verb, the verb is in the plural number, though each of the nouns and pronouns be in the singular number. They are taken together, and thus they make a plural, and, of course, the verb must be in the plural; as:

Le cheval, le bouc et le chien *étoient* dans l'écurie.  
The horse, the goat and the dog *were* in the stable.

384. In French, as in English, two nouns or pronouns with *ou* (or) between them, take the verb in the singular, because the *or*, though it connect them on the paper and in speech, disjoins them in sense; as:

Le seigle ou l'orge *qui est* dans le champ.  
The rye or the barley *that is* in the field.

But, in French, if the conjunction be not *ou*, the verb is generally in the plural; as:

Ni le seigle ni l'orge *ne se vendent* cher.  
Neither the rye nor the barley *sells* dear.

Here, you see, the verb is in the plural in French and in the singular in English. If there be several nouns, which are nominatives of the verb, and if there be one or more of them in the plural number, the verb must be in the plural, though some of the nouns may be in the singular; as:

Le maître ou ses gens *viendroient* demain, si. . .  
The master or his people *would come* to-morrow, if. . .

This holds good in both languages; but, if the last noun be preceded by *mais* (but), the verb is put in the singular. This happens when there is *non-seulement* (not only), or some phrase of that meaning, in the former part of the sentence. It is, however, the same in both languages, and no error can well happen in the constructing of such sentences. But, there is one difference in the two languages, respecting the number of the verb, that must be

refully attended to: it is this; we, in English, when we use a noun of *multitude*; such as *crowd*, *assembly*, *public*, or any other, may, as we please, consider the noun a *singular* or a *plural*, and, of course, we may use as relating to such noun, pronouns and verbs in the singular, or in the plural. This cannot be done in French. Whatever the noun, the pronoun and the verb must agree with it. Examples:

the <i>crowd</i> made a great noise,	La <i>foule</i> faisoit un grand bruit.
they were in the street,—or	} Elle étoit dans la rue.
was in the street,	
the <i>public</i> do not like that,	Le <i>public</i> n' aime pas cela.
they have rejected it,—or	} Il l' a rejeté.
has rejected it,	

The French adhere to this even in the use of the word *people*. They say, as we do, *le peuple*; but they always make the word a *singular*, and give it singular pronouns and verbs. We, on the contrary, do not very well use these singulars with *people*, though we, in speaking of a *nation*, sometimes say, *people*. In other cases we make use of plurals with the word *people*, and the French never do; as:

The people are tired of being treated in that manner.

Le peuple est las d' être traité de la sorte.

They will not be treated thus much longer.

Il ne souffrira pas qu'on le traite long-tems ainsi.

The people have their follies; but they are not wicked.

Le peuple a ses folies; mais il n'est pas méchant.

Thus, you see, pronoun, verb, adjective; all are in the singular in French, and, in English, the two former are in the plural and the latter has no change to express number. But, there are some few exceptions to this, and these you will find particularly well on in the Syntax of the *relative pronoun*, paragraph 316; and in the Syntax of the *Adjective*, paragraph 372. You must now read both those paragraphs very carefully over. Their contents belong to the *numbers of verbs* as well as to the heads under which they are placed.

385. When there are two or more pronouns, which are the nominative of the verb, and which are of different persons, the nominative must agree with

the first person in preference to the second, and with the second in preference to the third. It is, however, the same in English: as you and I *are* poor: *vous et moi nous sommes* pauvres. Mark, however, the manner of forming these phrases in French. You see there is a pronoun more here in French than in English.

*Vous et moi nous irons à la campagne la semaine prochaine,*  
You and I shall go to the country next week.

*Lui, Monsieur Lechamp, et moi nous nous en allons,*  
He, Mr. Lechamp, and I are going away.

*Elle, vous et votre oncle vous allez vous promener,*  
She and you and your uncle were going to take a walk.

Sentences of this sort may be turned thus :

*Nous irons à la campagne vous et moi la semaine prochaine.*  
*Vous allez vous promener, elle, vous et votre oncle.*

However, the verbs are in the plural in both languages; and that is the main thing that you have to attend to here. I might, in the Letter on personal pronouns, have spoken of this manner of using these pronouns; but, I thought it would be best here, when I came to speak of the agreement between the pronoun and the verb. You see the additional pronoun is used to make all clear. Our mode of expression is not so unequivocal. Take an example :

He, she and I have been very ill.

We understand this very well. We are *almost sure*, that it is meant that *all three* have been sick. But it is really not a point *beyond dispute*. The French say, therefore :

*Lui, elle et moi nous avons été très-malades,*  
He, she and I *we* have been very ill.

And, to a certainty, this is a better mode of expression, because it is perfectly unequivocal.

386. You will see, that the verb is *placed in the sentence* much about in the same manner that ours is, when *nouns* are used with it; but when pronouns are used, very different is the manner of placing the French verb, of which, indeed, you have seen instances enough. When the verb has a noun, or nouns, as its nominative, its place is, as in English, after the

noun ; as : le *mouton mange* l' herbe, l' *oiseau vole* dans l' air. Thus it is also in English. But, in both languages, when a sentence is *thrown into* the middle of the main sentence, the verb goes first ; as :

I will not give it to you, *said Richard*, unless you come after it.

Je ne vous le donnerai pas, *dit Richard*, à moins que vous ne veniez le chercher.

This manner of using the verb is, in cases like this, the same in both languages. But, the French sometimes put the verb before the noun when we do not, especially after *que* (whom, which or that) and *comme* (as) :

Le chien *que m' a vendu* le garde-chasse,

The dog that to me has sold the game-keeper.

This is, word for word ; but we say, the dog that the gamekeeper has sold me. Take an example with *comme*

Les choux, les asperges et les oignons sont gâtés, à ce que *dit Richard*.

The cabbages, the asparagus and the onions are spoiled, as *Richard tells me*.

Again, the verb is frequently put after *où* (where, in which, in which place).

La campagne *où demeure* mon ami,

The country place where my friend lives.

L' endroit *où se cachent* les renards et les loups,

The place where the foxes and wolves hide themselves.

These are very common expressions with the French, who make wonderful use of this *se*, and especially with the verb *trouver* (to find), which they make use of instead of *être*, in innumerable instances ; as :

I am very well,

Je me trouve fort bien. [tenant?

How is he now ?

Comment se trouve-t-il main-

We are very well here,

Nous nous trouvons bien ici.

#### EXERCISE XIV.

1. We see such things as that every day.
2. Neither threats nor money will make him cease complaining of it.
3. The carpenters or the masons will finish their work to-morrow.
4. He or she will pay for the dinner and the wine.
5. It was they who said that she should go away.

389. The French have *two past times*. We have, in our past time, the *do* and the *ing*; that is to say, the *do* become *did*, and, in the above example, the *am* become *was*; as: I *was* writing; I *did* write: I *wrote*. Aye; but the French have *two distinct sets of words* to express the past by. Look now again, for a moment, at the conjugation of *TUER*, in paragraph 118. There you see, that, in what they call the *past imperfect time*, I killed, is, *je tuois*, and, in the *past perfect time*, I killed, is, *je tuai*. In the other persons of the verb, the change is greater: so great indeed as for the words to appear not to belong at all to one another. *Nous tuions* is the past imperfect, and *nous tuâmes* the past perfect. Now, mind, each of these means *WE KILLED*.

390. Well, but as they mean the same thing, cannot they be used *indifferently*? Indeed they cannot; for, though we express them in English by the same word, they have a meaning, in French, clearly distinct from each other. To know when one of them is to be employed, and when the other, attend very earnestly to what I am now going to say. But, first of all, let me, in an extract from a French history, show you how these two past times are used. I shall give the translation, It is an account of an explosion in the fortified town of *VERDUN* in France.

<p>Le 18 Novembre, 1727, le moulin à poudre, construit dans cette ville, <i>sauta en l'air</i>, par la faute, dit on, d'un ouvrier, qui <i>fesoit sécher</i> de la poudre dans une poêle. Les effets en <i>furent affreux</i>. La terre <i>s'enfonça</i> en cet endroit de plus de quinze pieds: l'hémisphère <i>parut tout en feu</i>, et la terre <i>trembla à plus de deux lieues à la ronde</i>. Cet accident <i>abattit</i> de fond en comble cinquante maisons des environs. Tout ce qui <i>s'y trouva</i>, hommes, femmes, enfans, domestiques,</p>	<p>On the 18 November, 1727, the powder-mill, built in this town, <i>blew up</i>, from the fault, it is said, of a workman, who <i>was drying</i> some powder in a frying pan. The effects <i>were</i> dreadful. The ground at the place itself <i>was forced</i> down more than fifteen feet; the hemisphere <i>seemed</i> all on fire, and the ground <i>shook</i> for more than two leagues round. This accident <i>knocked down</i>, from top to bottom, fifty houses of the neighbourhood. All who <i>were</i> in them, men, women,</p>
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*fut écrasé* sous les ruines. Il y *eut* soixante-dix autres maisons fort endommagées, dont aucune n' a pu être habitée avant de l'avoir réparée. Il y *eut* d'autres encore, en grand nombre, dont les portes *furent* arrachées de leurs gonds, quoique fermées à clefs et à verrou ; et tous les vitrages de la ville basse *furent* fracassés. Il y *eut* aussi des marques de la violence de ce coup dans la ville-haute, et dans la citadelle, quoiqu' éloignée de plus de six cents toises du lieu où le moulin *étoit* construit. Outre les maisons bourgeoises il y *eut* trois églises paroissiales, et divers couvents endommagés considérablement, ainsi que l'hôpital general, et celui des soldats. Les Dames de la Congrégation *furent* les plus maltraitées, leurs dortoirs ayant été renversés, pendant qu'elles *étoient* à Complies. La quantité de poudre qui *prit* feu *consistoit* en quatre milliers de poudre fine, et six milliers de poudre commune.

children, servants, *were* crushed under the ruins. There *were* seventy other houses very much damaged, not one of which could be inhabited until repaired. Besides these, there *were* others in great number the doors of which *were* torn from their posts, although locked and bolted : and all the windows in the lower-town *were* smashed to pieces. There *were* also marks of the violence of this shock in the upper-town and in the citadel, though at more than six hundred fathoms from the spot where the mill stood. Besides the houses of the town's people, there were three parish churches and divers convents considerably damaged, as well as the general hospital and that of the soldiers. The Nuns of the Congregation *were* the most roughly handled, their dormitories being shaken in while they were at Evening Prayers. The quantity of powder that *took* fire *consisted* of four thousand weight of fine, and six thousand weight of common.

391. The verbs, you will perceive, are put in *Italic* characters. We will, when we have laid down the rules, see how the use of the verbs agrees with those rules. Monsieur RESTAUT has the following passage upon this subject. I shall translate it entire ; because it will be useful as the ground-work of my observations, and because it will enable us to see how the above practice squares with the rules of this able grammarian.

392. Monsieur RESTAUT says: "The *prétérit* (past perfect) time, points out a thing passed, and passed, too, in a time no part of which remains, and in which we no longer are ; as : JE FUS MALADE L'ANNEE DERNIERE. It is essential to observe that we



ought not to make use of this past time to denote any time, which is not farther back than the day in which we are talking. So that we must not say, *JE FUS MALADE CE MATIN*. We must say, *J'AI ETE malade ce matin*. Also we must not use the past perfect in speaking of *this year*, this century; nor of time, any part of which remains yet to pass away." To this he adds, that "the past perfect time must, on no account, be employed except as applied to a time *absolutely completely passed*; whereas, there are many cases, in which *it is not a fault* to use, instead of the past perfect, the compound of the present; as: *Alexandre fut le plus grand, capitaine de son siècle*: or, *Alexandre a été le plus grand capitaine de son siècle*.

391. Now, how does this agree with the above passage? Read that passage attentively, and look at, and compare with one another, the several verbs in it. It is very true, that the year 1727 is wholly gone and past; that no part of it remains; that we are no longer in it. Therefore it is very right, of course, to say,

<i>sauta en l' air,</i> <i>s' enfonça,</i> <i>parut en feu,</i> <i>s'y trouva,</i> <i>fut écrasé,</i>	} and not	<i>sautoit en l' air,</i> <i>s' enfonçoit,</i> <i>paroissoit en fue,</i> <i>s'y trouvoit,</i> <i>étoient écrasé.</i>
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This is all very right, and according to the rules of Monsieur RESTAUT, who has said, as I have just quoted; and who says, with regard to the *imperfect*, that it is to be used to denote the past with regard to the present; and that it designates that a thing *was present* in a time that is now past; as: "I WAS at table *when you came*. My being at table is *now past*; but, this manner of using the verb points out, that *it was present* when you arrived."

394. So far all is very well; and it is easy enough for you to know *one case* when the imperfect ought to be used; namely, when we use the *active participle* and the *verb to be* in the past time; I *was* at table, that is, *sitting* at table, when you arrived.

Thus you see very clearly why "*fesoit sécher*" was put, instead of *fit sécher*, in the first sentence of the above extract; for this is the translation:

Un ouvrier, qui *faisoit sécher* de la poudre dans une poêle, A workman who *was drying* some powder in a frying pan.

Here is the active participle and the past time of the verb *to be*. But, in the last sentence of this passage, there is the verb *consistoit*. You cannot say *was consisting*. How will Monsieur RESTAUT here make out something that was present when another thing happened, which other thing is now passed also? But, stop: here is another verb in the same sentence, and in the *past perfect* too. "*La quantité de poudre, qui prit feu, consistoit en quatre milliers de poudre fine.*" Why, then, I ask, have we *prit* instead of *prenoit*? Or, why have we *consistoit* instead of *consista*? You cannot turn *consistoit* into *was consisting*, any more than you can turn *prit feu* into *was taking fire*. The time, observe, is quite past. It is entirely gone. We are no longer in it. The verb *consistoit* cannot be turned into *was consisting*; and yet it is in the *imperfect time*.

395. The rules are, then, defective. The instructions are not clear. The distinctions are obscurely stated. First it is clear enough, that the *imperfect*, or (which is a much better word) the *unfinished*, form of the French verb, must always be used when we can turn the phrase into English by the active participle and the verb *to be*; when we can turn it into English by the verb and our word *used*; or, when we can turn it into English by the help of any word, signifying the *habit* of doing or being; as:

I <i>was planting</i> peas yesterday,	je <i>plantois</i> des pois hier,
when . . .	quand . . .
I wrote to him <i>every week</i> ,	je lui <i>écrivais</i> toutes les semaines.
I <i>was in the habit</i> of going thither,	j' <i>avois</i> coutume d'y aller.
They <i>continued</i> there for six years,	ils y <i>restoient</i> pendant six ans.
I <i>used</i> to eat a good deal of sugar,	je <i>mangais</i> beaucoup de sucre.

But, when you can discover none of these English marks of a demand for the *imperfect*, or, *unfinished*, form of the verb, observe this: that we sometimes make use of the past time of the verb, without having any intention to mark *any time at all*; but, to point out a fact; a fact, indeed, relating to a past time, but the time being, nevertheless, *of no importance*; as: the Jews were a wicked race; les Juifs *étaient* une méchante

race;  
they were seditious and avaricious. ils *étaient* séditieux et, avares.

Here, you see, is *continuity*. The Jews *were*, and *went on to be*, a bad race of people; but, here is nothing *finished*, nothing brought to a close; and that, mind, is necessary to justify the use of the *past perfect time*.

396. Look again at the above quoted passage, and at the sentence before the last. There are two verbs in that sentence, the first in the *past perfect*, the last in the *past imperfect*. "Les dames de la Congregation *furent* les plus maltraitées, leurs dortoirs ayant été renversés pendant qu'elles *étaient* à Complies." Here are *furent* and *étaient* in the same sentence, and applying to the same persons. But, if you look well into the matter, the reason is as clear as daylight. *Furent* relates to a matter *done with, finished, completely over*, and, that, too, in a past time. But, in that same past time, the ladies *were* at their Complies, or Evening Prayers: elles *étaient* à Complies: their dormitories were demolished *while they were* at Prayers. The prayers were, in the time spoken of, *going on*; but, the dormitories were done for: the misfortune of the ladies was *over*.

397. Let us take another instance. "SEDAN (a town of France) *était* autrefois une petite Souveraineté, de laquelle *dependoient* dix-sept villages. Elle *appartenait* anciennement aux archevêques de Rheims, un desquels l'*échangea* avec le Roi pour Cormicy." Now, you see, *était autrefois* and *appartenait* and *dependoient* all include the idea of *continuation*. This little district *was formerly* a lordship. We

might say, that it *used* to be a lordship. We might also say, that the villages *used* to depend upon it, and that it *used* to belong to the archbishops of Rheims. But (and now mind) we could not say that one of these bishops *used* to exchange it with the king. That was an act *done, finished*; not *going on*; not spoken of as being (in the past time alluded to) in a *state of being continued*.

398. Now the matter clears up. We begin to see the *reason* for this distinction in the past times; for, if you can, by a change in the ending of the verb, discover at once, whether an act was finished, or was going on, at a certain time, it is a great advantage. You can now see, I think, the reason for employing *consistoit*, as mentioned in paragraph 394, and also for using *prit* in the same sentence. "*La poudre, qui prit feu, consistoit en quatre milliers.*" Why not, said I, put *consista* as well as *prit*? You could now, I hope, tell me why; namely because the taking of fire was a thing *done with*. The fire took, the mill blew up, and there was an end. The matter was *finished* in the past time alluded to. But, mind, the powder's *consisting* of such a quantity was a matter without any limit as to time. It had *consisted for some time*; its *consisting had been going on*. There had been *continuation* in it; and, therefore, the writer could not say *consista*. Take two more instances, and then, I think, I may leave this matter.

Il l'aimoit long-temps, et à la	He loved her for a long time
fin, il l'épousa,	and, at last, he married her.
Hier, qui étoit dimanche, il alla	Yesterday, which was Sunday,
à l'église.	he went to church.

Here, you see again, there is *continuation* in the *loving* and in the *Sunday*; but none in the act of *marrying* nor in that of *going to church*. But,

Elle l'accosta comme il alloit à	She accosted him as he was
l'église,	going to church.

Here, you see, the case is different. His *going to church* is here spoken of as a thing that was *going*

on at the time alluded to ; a thing that was, in that time, in a state of continuation.

399. Thus have I, I think, made this matter clear. However, it is, observe, one of the *great difficulties* of the French language ; and it is one which the makers of grammars have taken special care to slide by without scarcely touching it. In grammars written *for French people*, to go into the matter thus minutely is not necessary, because they are, from their infancy, in the *habit* of making use of these words in their two forms. But, without explanation, and clear explanation too, how are we to know when *he had* is to be *il avoit*, and when it is to be *il eut* ?

400. Having now done with these two Times, let us speak a little of the rest. We have seen, in the rule of Monsieur RESTAUR, that the compound of the present time may be frequently used instead of the past perfect time ; and this is very common ; as :

Elle *chanta* hier au soir,—or } She sang last night.  
Elle *a chanté* hier au soir, }

We do not make use of this manner of expression in English. We do not say, she *has sung* last night. We say, she sang last night.

401. As to the FUTURE TIME, it has, in the Etymology, been explained to you, that our *will* and *shall*, which help to form the future time of our verbs, are wholly unknown in the French language, which, with more elegance and ease, and with less equivocation, expresses, by a change in the ending of the verb itself, all that we express, and that we wish to express, by the use of these nasty little harsh-sounding words. Foreigners have great difficulty in learning when they ought to use *will* and when *shall*. Those who learn French have no such difficulty.

I *shall put* my hand in my }  
pocket, } je *mettrai* la main dans ma  
I *will put* my hand in my } poche.  
pocket, }

And thus it is always. If, however, *shall* is used to denote obligation and *will* to denote determina-

tion, they must be answered in another way, as we shall see by and by ; but, as far as simply declaring, or stating, goes, the above is the manner of rendering the English future into French.

402. I have said, and well I may, that time must be *present*, *past*, or *future* ; yet some grammarians have contrived to find, in French and English, a great many more times than three ; or, at least, states of the verb which they *call times*. It may, in some languages, be necessary to make those numerous distinctions under the name of *times*. In French and English, it is not only unnecessary ; but, it produces great confusion and tends greatly to bewilder and disgust the learner, whether of English or of French. I will give you an instance of this, and will keep to our old verb *TUER*.

je tue,	<i>present,</i>	I kill.
je tuois,	<i>past imperfect,</i>	} I killed.
je tuai,	<i>past perfect,</i>	
je tuerai,	<i>future,</i>	I shall kill.

---

j' ai tué,	<i>the past indefinite,</i>	I have killed.
j'avois tué,	<i>the more perfect,</i>	} I had killed.
j'eus tué,	<i>the past perfect anterior,</i>	
j'aurai tué,	<i>the future anterior,</i>	I shall have killed.

It is in the grammar of Monsieur DE LEVIZAC that I find these pretty names given to *times*. The *two forms* for the *past times* are, as we have seen, necessary in French, and they must, of course, have *two names*. But, of what use are the four names here placed *under the line* ? What are these times, after all, *more than those above the line* ? Above the line, you have the changes in *TUER* to mark the four times ; and, below the line, you have the changes in *AVOIR* to mark the same four times. If, indeed, *TUER* changed its form here *eight* times instead of four, it would be necessary to have eight names to distinguish them by. But, as it is, the four additional names only serve to puzzle, retard, and disgust the scholar.

403. In paragraphs from 125 to 128 I have fully

explained the offices of AVOIR and ETRE, as auxiliary verbs. When they are used with the verb, the several times are said to be *compound*, which they are, because they consist of more than one thing; thus: *I have killed* is the compound of the present time; because *have* belongs to one verb and *killed* to another. Why, then, not call these times, the compound of the *present*, of the *past*, and of the *future*?

I have killed,	j' ai tué.
I had killed,	j' avois, or j' eus tué.
I shall have killed,	j' aurai tué.

It is, you see, the verb *to have*, used in all its times with the *passive participle* of the principal verb (*tuer*) coming after it. It is, in fact, a mere conjugation of the verb *to have* with that participle always coming after it.

404. But, as you have seen, in paragraph 132, the *compound times* are formed with *être* and not with *avoir* when the verb is reflected. And, observe also, that *été*, the passive participle of *être*, is, as in English, sometimes, and very frequently, used along with *avoir* and the passive participle of the principal verb; as: *j'ai été tué*. I have been killed. This may be called the *compound of the passive*: that is all. The verb *avoir* is conjugated throughout all its times, and the *two* passive participles come after it. Now, let us see an instance of each of these that I have been speaking of in the three foregoing paragraphs.

I kill,	je tue.
I killed,	je tuoïs; or tua.
I shall kill,	je tuerai.

---

I have killed,	j' ai tué.
I had killed,	j' avois, or j' eus, tué.
I shall have killed,	j' aurai tué.

---

I have been killed,	j' ai été tué.
I had been killed,	j' avois, or j' eus, été tué.
I shall have been killed,	j' aurai été tue.

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405. As to the times of the *Subjunctive Mode*, all that has here been said holds good with regard to them. Time is always present, past, or future ; and, there can be no need of imagining other times, and giving names to them. When the times are *compound* ; that is to say, when *avoir*, or (in reflected verbs), *être*, comes into use, you are to take it, and conjugate it, instead of the principal verb, the passive participle of which you are to add all the way through, as you see it done in the six last of the nine examples just given you. But, mind, you are to conjugate the compound times with *être*, instead of *avoir*, in a few *neuter* verbs as well as in all the reflected verbs. These neuter verbs are, *accourir*, *aller*, *aborder*, *arriver*, *choir*, *décéder*, *déscendre*, *devenir*, *entrer*, *monter*, *mourir*, *naître*, *partir*, *retourner*, *revenir*, *sortir*, *tomber*, *venir*. Thus, you must say, *je suis entré dans la chambre* ; and not, *j'ai entré dans la chambre*.

406. I shall conclude my remarks on the times of verbs by noticing some little peculiarities in the use of the French times. I have already noticed, that, in French, the *compound of the present* is very frequently employed instead of the *past perfect* ; and even instead of the *future* ; as :

<i>je dinai chez lui hier,—or</i>	} I <i>dined</i> with him yesterday.
<i>j'ai diné chez lui hier,</i>	
<i>avez-vous bientôt fini ?</i>	
	<i>will you soon have done ?</i>

We cannot choose thus in English. We cannot say, *I have dined* with him yesterday. When we make use of the compound of the *present* it must relate to some portion of time *not completely passed*. The French may say, *la récolte fut bonne l'année dernière*, or, *a été bonne* ; but we must say, the crop *was* good. But, on the other hand, we can apply the past time to a period not ended ; as : she *was* here *this morning*. Whereas, as we have seen, the French cannot apply their past time to a period not ended.

407. When there is no time at all specified, or



cared about, we can, in both languages, make use of the compound of the present ; as :

*We have seen* evil enough, *Nous avons vu* assez de mal.

The reason is, that *in our lives*, *in our time*, *in our day*, or something denoting a period not passed, is understood ; as : he *has read* much : *il a lu* beaucoup. But, in this respect the two languages are very nearly alike.

408. There is one thing more to point out, but it is of importance. The French frequently make use of the present of the verb *être* instead of the compound of *avoir* and *être*.

Il y a un mois que le vent <i>est</i>	It is a month that the wind <i>is</i>
à l' Est,	in the East.
Elle est depuis plus d'un mois	She <i>is</i> more than a month
hors de chez elle,	from home.
Il y a plus d'un an que je	It is more than a year that I
suis malade.	<i>am</i> sick.
Je <i>suis</i> depuis dix jours en	I <i>am</i> ten days on my journey.
route,	

This is a word for word translation as nearly as I can well make it. Now, we never express ourselves thus. We say,

The wind *has been* in the East for a month.  
 She *has been* more than a month from home.  
 I *have been* sick more than a year.  
 I *have been* ten days on my journey.

The French may use the same form, and they frequently do ; as : Il y a un mois que le vent *a été* à l'Est ; j'*ai été* malade il y a plus d'un an.

### EXERCISE XV.

1. The guide who conducted the observer, from whom I had the description, told him that, sometime before the war which closed with the peace of Ryswick, having guided the Germans to this spot, they found it covered with snow.
2. The palace was a temple, dedicated to the tutelary gods. Its form was oblong, and it had eight columns on each side longwise, and four

along each end, which made up the number of twenty-four ; of which eight remained, when they were taken down in order to enlarge the castle.

3. The fountain which is called d' Audege sends forth so large a quantity of water, that it forms a rivulet, very useful to the tanners who live in the suburbs.
4. Do you study well, and do you not neglect any part of your duty.
5. When he has finished building his house, he will go to the country.
6. When she goes to town she will find a great many friends very glad to see her.
7. Every thing is to be done that can be done for him.
8. He has been very ill-used by those who owed him a great deal.
9. She was very sick ; she suffered exceedingly. They did all they could to comfort her.
10. He has been to the church.
11. She fell from the top of the house.
12. They went away last year.
13. We have not been to see the play.
14. He went to bed at ten o'clock last night.
15. He had gone to bed earlier.
16. They rise early.
17. We rose every morning at four o'clock.
18. You ought to rise much earlier than you do.

409. THE MODES. Now, though you, at the beginning of this letter ; that is to say, at the beginning of your study of the *Syntax of Verbs* ; though you read throughout, the *Etymology* of verbs, yet, these *Modes* are a matter of so much importance, that you must, once more, read paragraphs 116 and 117 ; and read them, too, with very great attention.

410. As I have there observed, the modes would be a matter of less consequence if the French verbs did not *change their form* in order to accommodate themselves to the different modes ; or, at least, if

this never were the case; but, as you will find, it is almost always the case. In English we say, I make, I must make; but, in French, we must say, *je fais*, *il faut que je fasse*. . Ours is *make* in both cases: but, in French, it is *fais*, in one case, and *fasse* in the other. If you were, in translating *I make*, to say, *je fasse*; or, in translating, I must make, to say, *il faut que je fais*, French people would hardly understand you. They might guess at your meaning; but that would be all. They would not laugh outright at you, as we generally do at French people when they speak broken English; but, they would laugh to themselves. This is, then, an affair of great consequence.

411. You have just read (in paragraph 116) a description of the *four modes*. I need not, if you have read that paragraph and the next, describe those Modes again. What I have now to do is, to teach you when the one is employed and when the other. The INFINITIVE, as being the root of the verb, stands first in the conjugations; but, I shall speak of it last. I shall take the other three in their due order; the INDICATIVE, the SUBJUNCTIVE, and the IMPERATIVE.

412. But, before I speak of the manner of using these modes, let me again caution you, not to look upon the *signs* of our verbs, *as you see them placed in the conjugations*; let me caution you, not to look upon those signs, I mean, *should*, *could*, *would*, *may*, and *might*, as being to be translated upon all occasions *as you see them translated in the conjugations*. I have, indeed, in these conjugations, put only *shall*, *may*, *should*, and *might*, for want of room for the others. The danger is, that, seeing *should*, for instance, placed against a certain time in a certain mode, you will conclude, that our *should* must *always be translated in that manner*. This is not the case; and therefore, you must take care not to adopt this notion of the matter. It was necessary to place some signs before our verbs in the conjugations: those which I have there placed, do, in

certain cases, answer, with their verb, to the verb against which they are placed: but, mind, they do not thus answer in all cases; and this you must take care not to forget.

413. We are to begin now with the **INDICATIVE MODE**. As you have before been told, it simply *indicates* or *declares*, as its name imports. It does not express an action or state of being, which is dependent on any other action or state of being. It is the unconditional state of the verb affirming or denying, without, as our saying is, “any of your *ifs* and *ands*,” as:

I go to London,	je vais à Londres.
I do not go to London,	je ne vais pas à Londres.

These verbs are in the indicative: but, if there be a *dependance*, a *condition*, a something *subjoined*, the verb is in the subjunctive, as:—

il importe que j' <i>aille</i> à Lon-	it is of consequence for me to
drea,	go to London.
il importe que je n' <i>aille</i> pas	it is of consequence for me not
à Londres,	to go to London.

Here you see, is a *consequence* attached to the thing expressed by the verb. There is something *subjoined*, or *joined on*, to the simple act of going, or not going, to London. Accordingly, you see that the verb changes its form. **ALLER** (to go) is, you know, an *irregular* verb. Look at the conjugation of it in paragraph 203. You there see that *vais* is the first person singular of the Indicative; and that *aille* is the first person singular of the Subjunctive. There are, perhaps, a hundred verbs in the Indicative for one in the Subjunctive. The *infinitive* is attended with little difficulty, and the *Imperative* with less. The great thing, then, as to the Modes, is to know when we ought to put the verb in the subjunctive. The indicative may be said to be the *rule*, and the subjunctive the *exception*. The *exception*, is, however, very extensive: but, there are rules relating to it, and those rules we are now going to see. In English we have no change, or very little, in the form of the verb to distinguish the sub-

junctive from the indicative: but, if we had, the guide would not be perfect: for it is not always that a French verb in the subjunctive is properly translated by an English verb in *the same Mode*.

414. The subjunctive must always be used *after certain conjunctions*, which are said to *govern* that mode. But, first of all, it is best to seek for some *principle*; for, even if we fall short of perfection in principle, the very effort does something for us. We have seen that the subjunctive is used where there is *dependance* on some other act or state of being. It is also used generally when *passion, desire, or strong feeling* is expressed; as: *je veux qu' il s'en aille*: I *wish* him to go away; or, literally, I will that he himself from this go. Verbs also denoting joy, sorrow, doubt, fear, suspicion, permission and prohibition, take the subjunctive. But, to teach you *every* verb which requires the next verb to be in the subjunctive would be to usurp the office of the *dictionary-maker*, seeing that the dictionary tells you when the verb requires the subjunctive after it. If you look for the verb *permettre*, for instance, you will find that it is noted as *governing* the subjunctive. This verb causes the one that follows it to be in the subjunctive; as: *permettez que je vous le disse*: permit me to *tell* it you. If this last verb, *dire*, tell, were in the indicative, it would be *dis*; but being in the subjunctive, it is *dise*. Now, observe:

<i>vous savez que je le dis,</i>	<i>you know that I say it.</i>
<i>vous permettez que je le dise,</i>	<i>you permit me to say it.</i>
<i>vous jurez qu'elle le fait,</i>	<i>you swear that she does it.</i>
<i>vous désirez qu'elle le fasse,</i>	<i>you desire that she may do it.</i>

Here, you see, are *dis* and *dise*, *fait*, and *fasse*, only because *savez* and *jurez* govern the indicative, and *permettez* and *désirez* the subjunctive. You see, too, that there is a twisting in our English. We do not say after *permit* and *desire* what we say after *know* and *swear*. After *desire* we have a real subjunctive; *may do*.

415. However, the dictionary must be resorted to

here. When you are going to use a verb (until you know them all), look to see whether it govern the subjunctive. If it do, the verb which it so governs must be put in the subjunctive mode.

416. The subjunctive mode has, in almost every instance, *que* before it. Sometimes it has *qui*; but not often. However, the use of these words is not confined to this mode by any means; so that you are not to suppose, that a verb is in the subjunctive merely because it may have *que* or *qui* before it.

417. The French subjunctive, in the present time, is very often used to answer to the English future of the indicative; as:

Craignez-vous qu'elle ne Do you fear that she will die?  
*meure*?

Croyez-vous qu'elle le fasse? Do you believe that she will do it?  
Pensez-vous qu'il vienne? Do you think that he will come?

A great deal of attention, and a great deal of writing, will very soon put you in possession of a knowledge of this matter. You see, that there is, in all these cases, more or less of *uncertainty*, of doubt, of fear, of something creating a *dependance* of one verb upon the other. Still, however, always remember, that, if you have any doubt, the safe way is to look into the dictionary for the verb which is to govern in the sentence. After all, there must, as to the examples just given, be something left to be acquired by experience, by the habit of reading, writing and speaking; for, while you may say, and, indeed, must say, *croyez vous qu'elle le fasse*; you must, if the first verb be in any time but the present or the future of the indicative, put the second verb in the past perfect of the subjunctive; as:

*Croyiez-vous qu'elle le fît,*

and not

*Croyez-vous qu'elle le fasse.*

Because *croyiez* is not in the *present*, nor in the *future*, of the indicative. There are certain *pronouns* and *conjunctions*, which with *que* after them, govern the Subjunctive mode. The pronouns are, *quelque*, *quoique* and *quels-que*, when these words bear the

sense of *whatsoever*, *whatever*, or, *however*. This mode is used also after *si*, when it answers to our *if*; and also after *si* when *si* means *so*, or *so much* of, or, when *si* has any such comparative meaning and when it is followed by *que*.

Quelque riches qu'elles *soient*, However rich they may be.  
 Quoique vous *soyez* riche, Though you may be rich.  
 Quels-que *soient* les voya- Whoever the travellers may be.  
 geurs,

Quelques arbres qu'on *puisse* avoir, Whatever trees they may have.

Quelque vieille qu'elle *fut*, However old she might be,  
 Quoiqu'il en *soit*, However it may be; or, be it as it may.

Quelles-que *fussent* ses sœurs, Whatever his sisters might be.  
 Quoiqu'on en *dise*, il en mourra, Whatever people may say, he will die of it.

Si vous y allez et que vous y *restiez*, If you go there and remain there.

Elle n'est pas si prudente qu' elle ne *fassé* jamais de faute, She is not so prudent that she never commits a fault.

Ils n'étoient pas si généreux qu' ils *donassent* tout leur bien, They were not so generous that they gave all their property.

418. There are certain Adjectives, which, with *il est* (impersonal) before them, require the subjunctive mode after them; or, as it is called, they *govern* the subjunctive mode. I do not like to insert *lists of words*: it is the business of the *dictionary* to do that. But, as the dictionary does not always place against these Adjectives the fact that they, with *il est* before them, govern the subjunctive, I shall insert these Adjectives here. They are as follows:

agréable,	dur,	injuste,
aisé,	disgracieux,	juste,
affligeant,	ennuyeux,	malheureux,
à propos,	étonnant,	mal-aisé,
bienséant,	facile,	mieux (with <i>vaut</i> before it),
beau,	fâcheux,	mortifiant,
chagrinant,	glorieux,	nécessaire,
cruel,	gracieux,	possible,
expédient,	heureux,	plaisant,
dangereux,	honteux,	sensible,
difficile,	important,	surprenant,
divertissant,	impossible,	triste,
doux,	indifférent,	villain.
douloureux,		

These must have the *il est* before them to make them require the subjunctive after them. Some of them may always have *c'est* instead of *il est*; for, you may say, *il est* impossible qu'il aille: or, *c'est* impossible; but at any rate, you can always use *c'est*, if you employ the word *choose*; as:

il est possible que cela soit, } it is possible that that  
que cela soit c'est une chose possible, } may be.

When I say, the Impersonal *il est*, I mean *il* with some part of the verb *être*. It may be *il est*, or *il étoit*, or *il sera*, as we have seen in the Letter on Impersonal verbs. You know this already; but, it is not amiss to remind you of it. We, in English, do not use this manner of expression, except with some of these adjectives; or, rather with our own adjectives that answer to these. We say, it is *possible* that that may be; but, we do not say, it is *shameful* that that *may be*. In this case we may say *should be*. It is therefore necessary to attend to the above rule. Write this list of adjectives down ten or twenty times, and you will seldom forget them afterwards. To fix a thing well in the memory, there is nothing equal to the putting of it into writing.

419. But, besides these Adjectives, there are certain *nouns* and *conjunctions* which also govern the subjunctive mode. They, like the adjectives, all have a meaning that makes us perceive, that there is a *dependance* of one act, or state of being, on another act, or state of being. The nouns are *bien-séance*, *nécessité*. These take the *il est* also; and they take the article: *d' une nécessité*, *de la bien-séance*. Then there are *moyen*, *honneur*, *deshonneur*, *hont*, *gloire*, with the article before them preceded by *il y a*; as; *il n'y a pas moyen qu' elle fasse cela*.

420. You have seen instances enough already of *il faut* requiring the subjunctive mode. *Importer* is a verb, which means to *signify*, or, *to be of consequence*, or, as we say, sometimes, *to matter*. To *signify* is, in French, *signifier*; but they do not use



this verb very often to answer to *our signify*. They do not employ it commonly to express *mattering*, or *being of consequence*. They use the verb *faire*, in some cases, and the verb *importer*, in others; and in this case, *importer* requires the subjunctive after it; as: *il importoit qu'ils le fissent*, and not *qu'ils le firent*.

*il importe que vous soyez sobre*, it is of consequence that you  
should be sober,  
*il importe que nous ayons du pain*, it is of consequence that we  
should have bread.

This verb *importer*, when used with *il* before it, is of great use in French. No expression in the whole language is more common than *N'IMPORTE*; and this answers to our *NO MATTER*. This word *importer* is, mind, a verb, which is used in all its times, like another verb; but, we are now speaking of it in its capacity of Impersonal, used with *que* after it, and governing the subjunctive mode.

<i>il importe qu'elle vienne</i> ,	It is of consequence that she should come.
<i>il n' importoit pas qu'ils vin-</i> <i>sent</i> ,	It was of no consequence whe- ther they came or not.
<i>importe-t-il qu' il aille ?</i>	Is it of any consequence whether he go or not ?
<i>il n' importe pas que nous al-</i> <i>lions</i> ,	Is it of no consequence whether we go or not ?
<i>'qu' importe cela ?</i>	} Of what consequence is that ? or what matters that ? or what signifies that ?
<i>ou</i>	
<i>qu' est-ce que cela fait ?</i>	

These two last examples do not belong, properly, to our present subject, because they do not include a subjunctive; but having this word *importer* in hand and knowing how much it is in use, it was right to dwell thus upon it. The phrases of *no consequence*, *do not signify*, *is no matter*, *what signifies ?* are, as you know, of very common use in English. Those phrases which answer to them must, of course, be of very common use in French; and, therefore, it is of very great importance, it is absolutely necessary, for you to learn how these phrases are expressed in French. The French have, as well as we, the nouns

*consequence* and *matter* and the verb to *signify*: and they write them thus: *conséquence*, *matière*, *signifier*. We are, therefore, apt to (and indeed, we always do it till we learn better) use the words *consequence*, *matter*, and *signify* in French, in these cases; and this is a very great error. A few examples will make this matter plain to you, and will, I hope, prevent you from making, in such cases, literal translations of the English into French.

That is of no consequence,    Cela n'est de point de conséquence.

That does not signify,    Cela ne signifie pas.

That is no matter,    Cela n'est point de matière.

What does that signify?    Qu'est-ce que cela signifie?

This is a literal translation as nearly as possible; and a Frenchman would certainly not comprehend you. He might guess at the meaning; but that would be all. The *fourth* French phrase is, indeed, good French; but it does not mean what it is here intended to mean. The French verb, *signifier*, though it sometimes answers to our verb *signify*, does not answer to it in this sense. In English *signify* has two meanings; one is, *to mean*, and the other, *to be of consequence*; and it is not used in this latter sense in French. Therefore, *Qu'est-ce que cela signifie?* means what does that *mean*? and not, what does that *signify*? Now, then, let us see:

That is of no consequence,    Cela n'importe en rien.

That does not signify,    Cela n'importe pas.

That is no matter,    Cela n'importe pas.

What does that signify?    Qu'est-ce que cela importe?

Does it signify?    Importe-t-il?

Does it much matter?    Importe-t-il beaucoup.

That did not signify much,    Cela n'importoit pas beaucoup.

Observe, that the verb *faire* (which is a great actor in French) may, in many such cases be used instead of *importer*: as: *cela ne fait rien*. There are some little differences in the use of the two; but, *faire* is more familiar than *importer*. But, mind (and this brings us back to our subject) *il fait* does not govern the subjunctive; nor is the verb *faire* one of those which require the subjunctive after it.

421. The verb **CONVENIR**, when it is used as an *impersonal*, requires the subjunctive after it. This verb means *to fit, to suit, to become*, in short, *to be convenient*. It is a verb of great use, as ours are which answer to it.

it is fitting for that to be done.	il convient que cela <i>soit</i> fait.
it suits for him to go,	il convient qu'il <i>aille</i> .
it becomes them to be charitable,	il convient qu'ils <i>soient</i> charitables.

You see, here, that we, after our *fitting, suits, and becomes*, use our infinitives, *to be* and *to go*. The same may be done in French when there is a noun or pronoun the actor in the phrase : as :

it suits him to go thither,	il lui convient d'y <i>aller</i> .
it becomes them to be charitable,	il leur convient d' <i>être</i> charitables.

When, however, one of these forms ought to be used, and when the other, can be taught only by practice ; but you have the consolation to know, that constant practice, diligent use of the pen, will very soon teach it :

There are no means of my going thither,	} Il n' y a pas moyen que j'y <i>aille</i> .
	} Je n' ai pas le moyen d' <i>y aller</i> .

422. The **CONJUNCTIONS**, mentioned at the beginning of paragraph 419, as governing the subjunctive mode, are thirty-seven in number, and are these which follow :

Afin que	excepté que
avant que	hormis que
à la bonne heure que	hors que
au cas que	loin que
à moins que	malgré que
à condition que	moyennant que
à Dieu ne plaise que	non que
bien que	non pas que
bien entendu que	nonobstant que
bien loin que	pour que
ce n' est pas que	posé le cas que
de peur que	pourvu que
de crainte que	pour peu que
Dieu veuille que	plaise, or plut, à Dieu que
encore que	quoique
en cas que	sans que

que  
osé que  
r' à ce que

si ce n' est que  
si tant est que  
tant s' en faut que.

are some conjunctions which govern the *in-*  
*ve* mode, and some that govern the infinitive;  
you place the above list well in your memory,  
will very soon cease to confound the modes, as  
they are governed by Conjunctions. The  
inctions that govern the subjunctive have  
s *que* after them; but as there are some Con-  
ons which have *que* after them, and which  
n the indicative mode, mistakes will happen if  
o not take great care. For instance:

as qu'il aille,  
itôt qu' il va,  
ins *que* nous soyons,  
ue nous serons,

in case he go.  
as soon as he goes.  
except that we may be.  
as soon as we shall be.

see, here, that the two conjunctions, that I  
aken from the above list, have the verbs in the  
nctive mode. Look at the conjugation of *aller*  
f *être*. The act, in the first of the two ex-  
s, is to go. The actor is the *third person* in  
nstances. Yet, in one case, the verb is *aille*,  
the other it is *va*; and this is only because  
f the verbs has *au cas que* before it, and the  
*aussitôt que*. It would be useless to give a list  
conjunctions which govern the *indicative*;  
se all the conjunctions which govern the sub-  
ve have *que*, and all which have *que* before  
and which are not in the above list of thirty-  
, govern the indicative. Fix, therefore, the  
thirty-seven, well in your memory; or, rather,  
them *familiar to your eye*, and you will never  
mistakes respecting them. Let us take a few  
ples relating to those conjunctions and their  
nment of modes.

ose that they did it,  
ided that they did it,  
as they did it,  
hat they did it,

supposé qu' ils le *fissent*.  
pouvu qu' ils le *fissent*.  
à moins qu' ils le *fissent*.  
non qu' ils le *fissent*.

When they did it,  
even as they did it,  
because they did it,  
besides that they did it,  
the moment they did it,

lorsqu'ils le *faisoient*, or, *frent*.  
de même qu' ils le *faisoient*.  
à cause qu' ils le *faisoient*.  
outre qu' ils le *faisoient*.  
au moment qu' ils le *faisoient*.

Thus, you see, while it is always *did* in English, it is, in French, *fissent* above the line, and *faisoient* under the line. This difference is occasioned solely by the conjunctions. There is, you see, a very striking difference, between the form of the one and that of the other; and, the sound is very different also. It might have been *frent* instead of *faisoient*, the one being, as you know, the perfect and the other the imperfect of the indicative; but, neither bears much resemblance to *fissent*. It is, then, of great importance to have well fixed in your mind the conjunctions that require, or govern, the subjunctive. There are but thirty-seven of them. Write them over and over till they become very familiar to your eye; and then you will have only to bear in mind, that *all other* conjunctions followed by *que* govern the indicative; and that these thirty-seven are all the conjunctions that govern the subjunctive.

423. The subjunctive is used after *qui*, when *qui* comes after an adjective in the superlative degree, or after a negative; as:

*le plus* joli jardin *qu'* il y *ait* dans ce pays-là.  
and not

*le plus* joli jardin *qu'* il y *a* dans ce pays-là.

It is the *qui*, observe, coming after *le plus*, that demands the subjunctive of the verb. If there were no *qui*, or, if there were *qui* without the *le plus*, the indicative would be used. Let us take an example of the three.

<i>la plus</i> jolie fille <i>qu'</i> il y <i>ait</i>	the prettiest girl that there is
dans cette ville,	in this town.
<i>la plus</i> jolie fille <i>est</i> dans cette	the prettiest girl is in this town.
ville,	
<i>la</i> jolie fille <i>qui</i> <i>est</i> dans cette	the pretty girl that is in this
ville,	town.

It is, you perceive, the *superlative* and the *qui* to-

gether that require the subjunctive to follow. Not only *qui*, however, but any other relative pronoun proceeding from *qui*, if such relative come between verbs, expressing *desire* or *necessity*. But, first, let us take an example of the effect which the negative has upon the mode in this case.

il n' y a <i>pas</i> d' homme <i>qui soit</i>	there is no man who <i>is</i> more
plus estimé que lui,	esteemed than he.
il y a un homme <i>qui est</i> plus	there is a man who <i>is</i> more
estimé que lui,	esteemed than he.
je ne vois <i>pas</i> de fleurs <i>qui soient</i>	I see no flowers which <i>are</i> finer
plus belles que celles-là,	than those.
je vois des fleurs qui <i>sont</i> plus	I see flowers which <i>are</i> more
belles que celles-ci,	gay than these.

These examples make the matter plain so far. They show you, that it is the *negative*, which requires the subjunctive, and which causes you to have, in the first examples, *soit*, while in the second, you have *est*, though both are in the present time and both in the third person singular, and though both are translated into English by *is*. The same remark applies to the third and fourth examples, except that they are in the plural instead of the singular. Here you have *soient* in one case and *sont* in the other, though both are translated into English by *are*. But, as I noticed above, any relative pronoun, proceeding from *qui*, if such relative come between two verbs, and if it relate to a person or thing that is *desired*, *wanted*, or *wished for*, requires the subjunctive ; as :

I want a servant <i>who is</i> industrious,	il me <i>faut</i> un domestique <i>qui soit</i> laborieux.
find me a house <i>that is</i> large and convenient,	trouvez moi une maison <i>qui soit</i> grande et commode.
I wish to have a meadow that you think good, and that is to be sold,	je veux un pré <i>que</i> vous <i>trouviez</i> bon, et <i>qui soit</i> à vendre.

However, if *qui* or *que* do not relate to a person or thing that is desired, wanted, or wished for ; then the subjunctive is not used ; as : je n' aime pas un domestique *qui fait* son devoir à contre-cœur. But let us take an example or two more.

I want a garden <i>which is</i> well-situated,	j' ai besoin d' (or je veux) un jardin <i>qui soit</i> bien situé.
he has a garden <i>which is</i> full of weeds,	il a un jardin <i>qui est</i> plein de mauvaises herbes.
tell me, said she, of a husband <i>who is</i> young and handsome and rich at the same time,	parlez-moi, dit-elle, d'un mari <i>qui soit</i> jeune et joli, et riche en même temps.
I despise a man <i>who is</i> nothing but rich,	je méprise l' homme qui n' est que riche.
I wish to have some flowers <i>that you have</i> in your basket.	je voudrais quelques fleurs de celles que vous avez dans votre panier.
I have seen some flowers <i>that you have</i> in your basket,	j' ai vu des fleurs que vous avez dans votre panier.

You see, when the *qui* or *que*: that is, the *who* or *whom*, or *which*, relate to a person or thing that is *desired*, or *wished* for, or for the having of which, or the existing of which there is necessity, want, or need; then the verb that follows must be in the subjunctive; otherwise not. This is, I think, made quite clear by the above examples.

424. It now remains for me to speak, as far as the subjunctive mode is concerned, of the *different times* of the subjunctive. There is a present, a past imperfect, and a past perfect. Now, mark: when the verb which goes before the subjunctive is in the *present*, or in the *future*, of the indicative; then the *present time of the subjunctive* must be used: as:

je <i>désire</i> qu' il <i>vienne</i> ,	I desire that he may come.
je <i>desirerai</i> qu' il <i>vienne</i> ,	I shall desire that he may come.

But when the governing verb is in any time other than the present or the future of the indicative; then the subjunctive verb must be in the past perfect; as:

je <i>désirois</i> qu' il <i>vînt</i> ,	I desired that he <i>might come</i> .
je <i>désirai</i> qu' il <i>vînt</i> ,	I desired that he <i>might come</i> .
j' ai <i>désiré</i> qu' il <i>vînt</i> ,	I have desired that he <i>might come</i> .
j' avais <i>désiré</i> qu' il <i>vînt</i> ,	I had desired that he <i>might come</i> .

You see it is *vienne* after the present and the future of the indicative, and *vînt* after the past times and after the compound times.

425. We have *might come* in these examples ; but, it is not always that this translation takes place. In the conjugations, you find, *you may be*, put against *vous soyez*. But, though *you may be* is, in some cases, the translation of *vous soyez*, it is far indeed from being always such : now mind ; for this is a very important matter. We have good use for one of our subjunctives here, in order to say, “il importe que vous fassiez la plus grande attention à ce que je dis” :

I désire que vous *soyez* puni, he desires that you *may be*  
punished.

Il convient que vous *soyez* puni, it is proper that you *should be*  
punished.

That is enough ! Here is *soyez* translated by *may be* and, in the next line, by *should be*. Some grammarians say, that *should* does not belong to the subjunctive. Yet we here see it answering to *soyez*. In short, our signs *will, shall, should, would, could, may* and *might*, cannot be reduced to any thing like a *comparison* with the different terminations of the French verbs. These signs, besides helping to show the time, have meanings which the endings of the French verbs have nothing at all to do with. The *should*, for instance, in the last of the above examples, has in it something of the meaning of *ought*. The French verbs do not answer to these signs, except in part. To answer to these signs, the French have *principal verbs* ; of which I shall speak by-and-by. What I wish to do here, is, to caution you against supposing that *might, should*, and the rest of those words, are always translated into French *in the same manner*. Take another instance :

de peur que cela ne *soit*,  
je souhaite que cela *soit*,  
je voudrais qu' il *vînt*,  
je souhaite qu' il *vienne*,

for fear that that *should be*.  
I wish that that *may be*.  
I wish that *he would come*.  
I wish that *he may come*.

Here, in these two last examples there are the *would* and the *may*, in English, to answer to the French *vienne*. The truth is, that, besides expresse-



ing the wish of the party speaking, the *would* expresses the *power to act* in the person who is wished to come, while *may* simply expresses the wish that he may come.

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qu'il (or qu'elle) aille,

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<i>regardez</i> l' oiseau,	look at the bird.
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*Voici* and *voilà* are used to express parts of our verb *to be*, used with our adverbs *here* and *there*; as:

*here* is a basket of cherries for *voici* un panier de cerises pour  
you, vous.  
*there* are ten baskets for them, *voilà* dix paniers pour eux.

But, these words are made use of instead of *that is*, *this is*, and *it is*, and instead of other pronouns, used with *être*.

<i>Le voici</i> qui travaille,	<i>here he is</i> working, or, at work.
<i>La voilà</i> qui chante,	<i>there she is</i> singing.
<i>Ne voilà-t-il</i> pas une drôle d'affaire,	<i>is not this</i> an odd affair?

<i>voici</i> qui est beau,	this is fine.
<i>voilà</i> qui est beau,	that is fine.
<i>voilà</i> donc qui est fini,	<i>there, then</i> , it is all over.

In narratives, when the writer or speaker wishes to give life to his narrative, he uses *voilà*, and thus, in a manner, brings the persons and things before you; as:

il commençoit à pleuvoir, et me	it began to rain, and there was
<i>voilà</i> sans abri,	I without shelter.
comme nous allions nous mettre	as we were sitting down to ta-
à table <i>voilà</i> un messenger, qui	ble, a messenger entered the
entre dans la salle à manger.	dining room.

In this last example there is, in the English, neither *there* nor *is*. The *voilà* is not expressed at all; nor can it be with propriety. We do, indeed, see, even in printed translations, attempts to translate the *voilà* in sentences like this: we do hear translators say: "as we were sitting down to table, behold a messenger entered." But, this is not *English language*. We must have *entered*, and *who enters*; and, if we have not the *entering* in the *present time*, what becomes of the *behold*? Take care, then, how you translate passages with *voici*, or *voilà*, in them.

ne *voilà-t-il* pas une belle *is it* not a fine day?  
journée?

je l'ai donné au Monsieur *que* I have given it to *that* gen-  
*voilà*, tleman.

I beg you to pay great attention to what I have said

with regard to these words. They are in constant use. They occur, perhaps, on an average, once a minute in every conversation. We may say, in French, *il commençoit à pleuvoir, et j'étois là sans abri* : but this is not *French language*, though the words are French.

430. THE INFINITIVE MODE. Read again (though you have so recently read it) paragraph 114, and then go on with me. One of the greatest differences in the two languages lies in the manner of employing the *infinitive* and the *active participle*. We, in English, make continual use of the latter ; the French very little ; and, in many cases where we always use it, they never can. This is the case, as we have seen, in the present and past times ; as :

I am drinking,	je bois,	} and {	je suis buvant.
you were eating,	vous mangiez,		vous étiez mangeant.
they are marching,	ils marchent,	} not {	ils sont marchant.

The three last are not only not good French, but they are nothing at all. They are *letters* and *sounds*, marks upon paper, and noise : but they form no part of *language*. Pray mind this ; for, there is nothing that we English break ourselves of with so much difficulty as of the proneness to cling to our *ings*, and to force the French language to admit the words which literally answer to them.

431. The French use, in many cases, the *infinitive*, when we use the active participle ; but I shall notice this more under the head of PARTICIPLES. The main thing respecting the *infinitive* is this : that, there are certain verbs and adjectives, which require *de* before the infinitive ; certain other verbs and adjectives, which require *à* before the infinitive ; certain other verbs that take neither *de* nor *à* nor any other preposition before the infinitive ; certain other verbs that take neither *de* nor *à* before the infinitive ; and, last of all, certain *nouns* that take *de* before the infinitive. But, to give any thing, under the name of *rule*, to teach you when to use *à* and when to use *de*, would be to disgust you : at



the end of each of twenty rules, or more, there must come more, perhaps, than twenty exceptions, making four hundred in the whole ; so that to enter into detail here would be to go far in the making of a Dictionary.

432. But, there are these observations to make ; that when our English verb is followed by the preposition *of, from, at, upon, about, with, or after*, before an *active participle*, the *DE* is *commonly* used before the infinitive in French ; and that, when our preposition is, *to, in or for*, the French preposition *commonly* is *A* ; as :

I employ myself *in writing*,      je m' occupe à écrire.  
I keep myself *from writing*,      je m' abstiens d' écrire.

That is to say, I employ myself *in to write* : I keep myself *from to write*. The sense of the words affords a good *reason* for the use of *A*, and of *de*, in these cases : but this is far from being always the case. The use of these pronouns, before verbs in the infinitive, seems, in numerous cases to be quite capricious. All that we can say is, that the French language will have it thus : and, that the difficulty being great, our perseverance and patience must be great also. However, you will, even by this time, have acquired, from writing, reading, and speaking, the habit of using *à* and *de* in a proper manner three times out of four.

433. Besides *de* and *à*, there is *pour*, used before the infinitives of French verbs. This *pour* is used when our *to* means *in order to, or for the purpose of* ; as :

de l' eau *pour boire*,      water *to drink*.

But, *pour* is also used in cases where we use *for* followed by the active participle ; as :

Il sera récompensé *pour avoir*      He shall be rewarded *for hav-*  
bien travaillé,      ing worked well.

We might say *for working*. But neither of these ; neither *pour ayant* nor *pour travaillant* can be used in French. Guard yourself against the attempt by all means ; for this mode of expression is no more

the language of the French than it is the language of horses.

434. When the infinitive is (as was observed in paragraph 116) a noun ; as : *to quarrel* is disagreeable ; it may be expressed in French by the active participle, as *quarrelling* is disagreeable. But, in French, you must adhere to the infinitive, and say, *disputer* est désagréable. It is much better to say, *il est désagréable de disputer* ; but, at any rate, you must avoid translating *quarrelling* by *disputant*.

435. A verb which has before it a word expressing *sufficiency*, or *too much*, takes *pour* ; as : ils sont assez forts *pour* le faire : they are strong enough, to do it. But, observe, if the word of sufficiency do not come before the verb, there is no *pour* before it.

436. THE PARTICIPLES. In paragraph 117, I spoke of the Participles ; I told you why they were so called ; and, in the conjugations, you have seen enough of them as far as relates to their formation. I have just spoken also of our English ACTIVE PARTICIPLE as answering, in many cases, to the French infinitive. This active participle is, with us, *verb, adjective, noun*, alternately ; as :

1. *seeing* that he was going away, I spoke to him,
2. a *seeing* man is not easily deceived,
3. *seeing* is *believing*.

Now, as *verb* we use this participle in French ; but never as *adjective*, nor as *noun*. Therefore, when we find it either of these, in English, we must give the French phrase a wholly different turn.

1. *Voyant* qu' il s' en alloit, je lui parlai.
2. Un homme *qui voit* n'est pas facile à tromper.
3. *Voir* c'est croire.

And never, un *voyant* homme, *voyant* c' est *croyant* : never, on any account is a word of this sort to be considered an adjective or a noun. Therefore, this participle is always *indeclinable* ; that is, it never changes its form to denote either number, or gender. There are a few *law-terms*, indeed, that appear to be exceptions ; but even these are not ; and,

you will be sure to bear in mind, that it is, in French, *never adjective* and *never noun*. This constitutes one of the great differences in the two languages. When you have an *ING* to translate into French, take good care how you attempt to translate it by the French active participle.

437. Even in its *verbal* capacity this participle must be used very sparingly. We, in English, say, for instance, instead of *going*: the French never: they say, *au lieu d'aller*: that is, instead of *to go*. After almost all the prepositions we, in English, use this participle; but the French use it after *en* (in) only.

after having,  
for fear of being,  
for want of asking,  
without speaking,  
by writing,  
instead of swimming,  
save giving,

*après avoir.*  
*de crainte d'être.*  
*faute de demander.*  
*sans parler.*  
*par écrire.*  
*au lieu de nager.*  
*sauf à donner.*

I give you all these examples, that you may have a visible and striking proof of the difference in the two languages in this respect.

438. The active participle is frequently used after *en* when it is a preposition, answering to *in*; and, at times, when it answers to our *by*, or *while*, and, perhaps, some other of our prepositions and adverbs; as:

<i>en faisant</i> cela vous m'obligez beaucoup,	<i>in doing</i> that you will much oblige me.
C'est <i>en étudiant</i> qu' on apprend une langue étrangère,	it is <i>by studying</i> that one learns a foreign language.
<i>tout en brûlant</i> mon omelette, elle me toisoit.	<i>all the while</i> that she was burning my omelet she kept eying me from head to foot.

I have introduced this word *toiser* to give you an instance of how much is sometimes said by a word more than can be said by any other word (answering to that one) in another language.

439. The active participle is, as we have seen, in some cases, in English, a *noun*; as, *the falling* of the house *killed* the inhabitants. Here are article,

in the nominative case, verb, and noun in the  
ive case. Literally the sentence would be  
ranslated :

*Falling* of the house *kill-* *Le tombant* de la maison *tua*  
the inhabitants, les habitans.

mind, the like of this can never be said in  
h. The language of geese would be as intel-  
: to a Frenchman as this. You must say,

*Fall* de la maison *tuse* *The fall* of the house killed  
abitans, the inhabitants,

or or  
son, *en tombant*, *tua* *The house in falling*, killed  
abitans, the inhabitants.

r of these English phrases will do ; but neither  
good as that from which the French language  
is from head-splitting dissonance. Whenever  
is, in English, an article, a possessive pronoun,  
r word, which, being put before the active parti-  
shows it to be *a noun*, it never can be rendered  
ench by the active participle, unless with *en* :  
st be answered by a noun or by an infinitive.

ating of the sheep, le bêlement des moutons.  
ating of his master, la fourberie faite à son maître.  
mplaining of her hus- ses plaintes contre son mari.

l,  
ise of his going away la cause pourquoi il s'en alla  
erday, hier.

SAU, in one of his poems, addressed to Louis  
exclaims :

Grand Roi ! cesse *de vaincre* ou je cesse *d' écrire*."

though we say,

Great King, cease *to conquer*, or I cease *to write*,

say also say,

Great King, cease *conquering*, or I cease *writing* ;

his you must never attempt to say in French ;  
against such attempts I cannot too often cau-  
you. I know of no part of our language,  
a so puzzled me to turn into French, as those  
nces in which we find the *article*, or the *pos-*  
e pronoun, before our *active participle* ; and  
not refrain from adding another example or

two in order to make this matter quite clear to you.

*The running away of the army* La fuite de l'armée a laissé  
my left the town exposed to la ville exposée à l'ennemi.  
the enemy.

*The defeating of the enemy* La défaite de l'ennemi nous  
opened the way for us into a ouvert le chemin à son  
his camp.

*His perfect sobriety and his* Sa sobriété parfaite et sa grande  
great industry have been the industrie ont été cause qu'  
cause of *his being* so much on a eu tant de respect pour  
respected. lui.

*Her being young is much in* Sa jeunesse fait beaucoup pour  
her favour. elle.

*Their coming hither has ruin-* Ils ont été ruinés à cause qu'  
ed them. ils sont venus ici.

*I expect his coming with great* J'attends son arrivée avec  
impatience. bien de l'impatience.

*Our going to America was* Notre départ pour l'Amérique  
expected by nobody. n'étoit attendu de personne.

*Your losing your sight was a* C'étoit malheureux pour vo-  
sad thing for your wife and tre femme et vos enfans que  
children. vous eussiez perdu la vue.

*His coming here has made his* Il doit sa fortune à ce qu'il est  
fortune. venu ici.

*Her pleasing them made her* Elle a trouvé un mari riche  
get a rich husband. parce qu'elle a su leur  
plaire.

Nothing can more strongly characterize the two languages. Not the least resemblance is there between them in this respect.

440. It only remains for me to speak of the employing of the French active participle before an adjective, or before a *passive participle*, or with *que* before a noun, or a pronoun; as:

having been at the play last night, ayant été à la comédie hier au soir.

seeing that it was going to rain, voyant qu'il alloit pleuvoir.

having heard that they were coming, ayant appris qu'ils alloient venir.

perceiving that it was not very late, s'apercevant qu'il n'étoit pas fort tard.

knowing very well that she would not come, sachant très-bien qu'elle ne viendrait pas.

believing that he dared not go thither, croyant qu'il n'osoit y aller.

walking in the street I met	en me promenant dans la rue
them,	je les rencontrai.
being ill I could not go to their	étant malade je ne pouvois
house,	aller chez eux.

The manner of using the participle is, in this case, nearly the same in both languages. We say, *having seen*; the French say, *ayant vu*: we say, *seeing that*; they say, *voyant que*. So that, in this respect, there is no difference worth speaking of. Indeed, nearly all that you have to do with regard to the French active participle is never to employ it as an *adjective*, nor as a *noun*.

441. We now come to the PASSIVE PARTICIPLE. You know it well, as to what it comes from, and as to the reason of its name. You ought to go back to paragraph 117, and there read my description of the nature of the PARTICIPLES. Here you see, then, that, while the *active* participle sometime performs the office of an *adjective*, at others of a *verb*, and, at others, of a *noun*, the *passive* participle sometimes performs the office of an *adjective*, and, at others, of a *verb*. We have just seen a great deal about the active participle; but, let us take a view of both together here; thus:

active,	{	a proscribing man,	un homme qui proscrie.
		a man who is proscribing,	un homme qui est à proscrire
		proscribing is horrible,	proscrire est horrible.
passive,	{	a proscribed man,	un homme pros crit.
		a man who has proscribed,	un homme qui a pros crit.

Here we see both these words in all their functions. It is the passive participle that we have now to do with: and here you see it in both its capacities, namely, that of an *adjective* and that of a *verb*. These distinctions would be useless, were the *form of the word always the same*. Little need we, English, care, when our passive participle is *adjective*, or when it is *verb*, seeing that we always write it with the *same letters*. The active participle is, in both languages *unchangeable* in its form, and is, therefore, attended with little difficulty, compared with the passive participle, which, in French, is

liable to changes in its form ; which, in fact, like an adjective, changes its form to agree in number and gender with its noun ; and which makes its changes precisely according to the rules laid down in Letter VIII. for the forming of the numbers and genders of adjectives. How different from our passive participle, which never undergoes any changes of form ! It is always written in the same way. We say a *proscribed man*, a *proscribed woman* ; but the French must say un homme *proscrit*, une femme *proscrite*. We say two *proscribed men* ; they, deux hommes *proscrits*. Well, but we know how to form plural numbers and feminine genders ? Yes ; but, the French passive participle is not, in all cases, liable to changes of form. It is, in some cases a word, which, like an adverb, has no changes of form. And, our difficulty is, to know, when we ought to make it a changeable word, and when we ought not. This is a real difficulty, though it, like all our other difficulties, is to be quickly overcome, if we be attentive and industrious. You must perceive, that it is of great consequence to know, when you are to write (and pronounce also) *proscrit*, when *proscrits*, when *proscrite*, and when *proscrites*. And, mind, you cannot ascertain this from the Dictionary, as you can the gender of nouns and many other things. This is a matter which depends upon the construction of the sentence, and upon other circumstances, which are of infinite variety and are purely contingent. In such a case, therefore, no Dictionary can exhibit examples to be of any use. Take an instance in the use of the passive participle of our old acquaintance, TUEE.

J'ai tué une brebis cet après-midi ; mais elle n'est pas si bonne que la brebis que j' ai tuée ce matin.

I have killed an ewe this afternoon ; but she is not so good as the ewe which I killed this morning.

Now, you see, here, that the person who kills is the same in both instances, the thing killed is, in both instances, the same in number and in gender ; and yet, in one instance we make use of *tué*, and,

in the other, of *tuée*. In the first instance we use the participle without changing its termination, and, in the last, we change its termination to make it agree in gender with *brebis*. Take a few more examples:

Avez-vous <i>tué</i> la poule ?	Have you <i>killed</i> the hen ?
Oui : je l' ai <i>tuée</i> .	Yes : I have <i>killed</i> her.
Avez-vous <i>tué</i> les poules ?	Have you <i>killed</i> the hens ?
Oui ; je les ai <i>tuées</i> .	Yes : I have <i>killed</i> them ?
Avez-vous <i>tué</i> le coq ?	Have you <i>killed</i> the cock ?
Oui : je l' ai <i>tué</i> .	Yes : I have <i>killed</i> him.
Avez-vous <i>tué</i> les coqs ?	Have you <i>killed</i> the cocks ?
Oui : je les ai <i>tués</i> .	Yes : I have <i>killed</i> them.

Thus, you see, it is always *killed* in English, though it is *tué*, *tuée*, *tuées*, or *tués* in French. And you see, that these changes take place in the French participle *only sometimes*. You see, that *tué* and *tuée* are both applied to the killing of the *poule* ; that *tué* and *tuées* are both applied to the killing of the *poules* ; and that it is the same with regard to the killing of the *coq*, and the *coqs*. It is clear, then, that the changes in the form of the passive participle must depend, not upon the numbers and genders of the nouns only, but partly upon the *construction of the sentences* ; that is to say, the manner in which, *with regard to other words*, the participle stands in the sentence.

442. Let us now see, then, what rules we can take for our guide here, beginning with those cases in which the passive participle is subject to the changes above mentioned.

FIRST. It is subject to change (*generally speaking*) when it has the verb *être* before it. But, mind, this is only *generally*. It is, however, always, subject to change, when it is used merely as an *adjective*. I will take the verb *proscrire* for my illustration here, as far as it will suit. *Proscrire* is, you know, (see paragraph 201), conjugated like *écrire*, which you find conjugated in paragraph 216. The passive participle is, you see, *écrit* ; and, therefore, the passive participle of *proscrire* is *pros-*



*crit.* This, to make the plural masculine, changes to *proscrits*; to make the singular feminine, it changes to *proscrite*; and, to make the plural feminine, it changes to *proscrites*. Now, then, observe, the passive participle is always subject to change its form when it is used merely as an adjective; as:

un homme <i>proscrit</i> ,	a proscribed man.
deux hommes <i>proscrits</i> ,	two proscribed men.
une femme <i>proscrite</i> ,	a proscribed woman.
deux femmes <i>proscrites</i> ,	two proscribed women.

Now, observe, this is invariably the case, when the participle is thus used plainly and clearly as an adjective. But, we ought to notice, that the *être* is understood in all these instances; for, we mean, un homme qui a été *proscrit*: a man who has been proscribed. The passive participle is, as I said before, *generally* subject to change when it comes after the verb *être*. And, mind, the passive participle must *always* have either *être* or *avoir* before it. For, though we use it sometimes without expressing *être*, that verb is, in such cases, as we have just seen, always understood. Well, then, let us see, first, how the participle is used with *être*, and then, how it is used with *avoir*.

**SECOND.** The participle changes its form when it is used with *être*, when the verb to which it belongs is a *neuter* verb, or when it is a *passive* verb, whether reflected or not; as:

Neuter Verb.	{	Il est parti,	he is gone away.
		Ils sont partis,	they are gone away.
.	{	Elle est partie,	she is gone away.
		Elle sont parties,	they are gone away.
Passive Verb.	{	Il est proscrit,	he is proscribed.
		Ils sont proscrits,	they are proscribed.
		Elle est proscrite,	she is proscribed.
Reflected Verb.	{	Elle sont proscrites,	they are proscribed.
		Il s' est coupé,	he has cut himself.
		Ils se sont coupés,	they have cut themselves.
		Elle s' est coupée,	she has cut herself.
		Elle se sont coupées,	they have cut themselves.

But, now, there are some seeming exceptions to this; and these you must very exactly attend to.

If the verb *être* can have its place conveniently supplied by *avoir*, which often happens in using the participles of reflected verbs, the participle does not change its form ; as :

Elle s'est coupé le bras,                      She has cut her arm.

You see, this may be expressed by *avoir* : elle a coupé son bras. But, the truth is, that here is *action*, and the action is done to the arm. The participle is not *really passive*. It has *être* before it, but *être* as you know, is used instead of *avoir* in conjugating the reflected verbs. The two participles *allé* and *venu*, when there is a pronoun in the objective case before *être* and a verb after the participle, do not change their form ; as :

Il lui est allé parler,                      he is gone to speak to him.  
ils leur sont allés parler,                  they are gone to speak to them.

But, this is not the case, if the place of the pronoun in the objective case be changed ; for then the participle does change its form ; as :

Il est allé lui parler,                      he is gone to speak to him.  
ils sont allés lui parler,                  they are gone to speak to them.

In the first of these cases (*allé parler*), the two words make in some sort, but one. *Gone to speak to*. But, in the latter case, there is a clear separation. The verb *être* is the only one that has any connection with *allé*. *Speak to* is a fresh verb, and it governs *les* in the objective case ; whereas in the former instance *allé parler* govern *lui* and *leur*. But, besides, *allé* and *venu*, there are some participles which do not, when followed by another verb, change their form, though they have *être* before them ; as :

le livre qu'il s'est proposé de    the book that he has proposed  
lire,    to read.  
les livres qu'il s'est proposé    the books that he has proposed  
de lire,    to read.

Here is no change in the form of the participle ; and the reason is, that, in such cases as this, the participle is closely connected with the verb that follows. The proposing to read and the reading make but *one affair, one act*.

443. THIRD. I now come to the use of the passive participle with *avoir*. Generally the participle *does not* change its form, when it has any part of *avoir* before it. Let us take *avoir* with *proscrit* and *coupé*. We cannot take it with *parti*; for *avoir* is not used with neuter verbs.

Il a proscrit,	he has proscribed.
Ils ont proscrit,	they have proscribed.
Elle a proscrit,	she has proscribed.
Elles ont proscrit,	they have proscribed.
Il a coupé,	he has cut.
Ils ont coupé,	they have cut.
Elle a coupé,	she has cut.
Elles ont coupé,	they have cut.

Here, you see, there are no changes in the form of the participle as there are when it is used with *être*. But this is *not always* the case: and now we are going to see how the participle is affected by the *construction of the sentence*, of which I spoke at the close of paragraph 441, and which you will now look at again. You saw in paragraph 441, the instances of *poule* and *coq*. Look at them again; and then we will take another example.

Il a <i>proscrit</i> aujourd'hui les femmes qu'il a <i>proscrites</i> l'année passée.	He has proscribed the women to-day whom he proscribed last year.
---	--

Here the person who proscribes is the same in both cases, the persons proscribed are the same in both cases, and yet, the participle does not change its form in one case, to express number and gender, and does change its form for that purpose in the other case. Now, the *reason* is this: in the first instance the participle has an *active* meaning, and in the second, a *passive* meaning. In both instances we have the compound time of the verb *proscrire*; but, in the first, the object is to express what the man *has done*; and, in the second, to express what the women have *had done to them*. In the latter instance the meaning is *passive*; it means that the women *were* proscribed, *furent pros crites*, last year. The participle, in this last instance,

*characterises* the women. It is intended, not so much to *assert* any thing about them as to say who or what they are. This is the *reason* of the change being made in the participle, in the one case, and not in the other; and out of this reason has come this *rule*, that, when a passive participle, coming after *avoir*, has, going before it, a noun or pronoun in the objective case, and governed in that case by *avoir* and the participle; then the participle does change its form to express number and gender. Now, try the last example by this rule.

Il a *proscrit* les femmes aujourd'hui.

Here there is no noun, nor pronoun, in the objective case, going before a *proscrit*. The *il* is in the nominative case. The *il* is the subject, and *les femmes* are the object; but, in

qu'il à *proscrites* l'année passée.

we have *qu'* that is, *qui* (whom), which goes *before* the participle, and which is in the objective case, and governed in that case by *avoir* and the participle; and, therefore, the participle changes its form. Thus, you see, it depends, in many cases, on the *place*, which the participle occupies in the sentence, whether it be to change its form or not. Monsieur RESTAUT says, that, "when the participle *ceases* to have a *passive* signification, it is *indeclinable*, that is, it does not change its form:" and, he says, that "it *does cease* to have the passive signification, when it forms, with *avoir*, the compound times of any verb, whether active or neuter." This is, indeed, *frequently* the case, but is far from being always, or even generally, the case; and I wonder how the observation found its way to the paper from so able a pen as that of Monsieur RESTAUT. Why, in, "qu'il a *proscrites*," the participle forms, with *avoir*, the compound time of an active verb; and yet the participle changes its form. But let us take an example from Monsieur RESTAUT himself.

J'ai reçu les lettres que vous m'avez *écrites* au

• sujet de l'affaire que je vous avois *proposée* :

et après les avoir lues avec attention, j'ai reconnu, comme vous, que si je l'avois entreprise, j'y aurois trouvé des obstacles, que je n'avois pas prévus.

Here are eight participles, each of which, with *avoir*, forms a compound time of the verb ; and yet, three of them (*reçu, reconnu, trouvé*) do not change their form. It is clear, then, that it is the *place* of the participle that is to be attended to here. The word *lettres* is a *plural feminine*, and, accordingly, it has *écrites*, in the above sentence :

les lettres, *que* vous m'avez écrites.

But why not make the participle of *recevoir* agree also with *lettres* ? Why not write,

j'ai reçues les lettres,

and not *reçu* ? Because, in the instance first here mentioned the *que* (which) which represents *lettres*, and which is in the objective case, governed by *avez écrites*, goes *before* the participle : and because, in the last instance, *les lettres*, which is in the objective and governed by *ai reçu*, comes *after* the participle. The same may be said of *lues*, and, indeed, of all other participles thus used.

J'ai envoyé dix oiseaux à la ville,  
Les dix oiseaux *que* j' ai envoyés.

Thus, then, it is the *place* of the participle that you have principally to look to, in order to regulate your conduct in the use of it.—Now, there are only two exceptions to this rule. The first is, that, in the *impersonals* with *avoir* the participle never changes its form ; as :

la chaleur <i>qu'</i> il a fait,	the hot weather that has been.
le froid <i>qu'</i> il a fait,	the cold weather that has been.

Here you see, *chaleur* is feminine and *froid* masculine ; and yet the participle does not change its form. The *reason* of this is ; that the *il*, in this *il fait*, does not represent any *actor*. There is no *action* ; there is nothing *done to the heat or the cold*. If the *fait* had related to something *done to a thing*, it would have been otherwise ; as :

la table <i>qu'</i> il a faite,	the table that he has made.
l'habit <i>qu'</i> il a fait,	the coat that he has made.

The other exception is similar to that mentioned in the last paragraph ; namely, that, when the participle is *followed by a verb*, which, together with the participle expresses but *one idea*, when the two are rather *one word* than *two* ; as : the man that I have *seen killed* ; the woman that I have *made sing* ; the coat that I *have had made*. When this is the case, though the pronoun, or noun, which is in the objective, come before the participle, the participle does not change its form ; as :

l' homme que j' ai *vu* tuer,  
la femme que j' ai *vu* tuer,  
l' homme que j' ai *fait* chanter,  
la femme que j' ai *fait* chanter,  
les femmes que j' ai *fait* chanter,  
l' habit que j' ai *fait* faire,  
les habits que j' ai *fait* faire,  
l' homme que j' ai *entendu* parler,  
les hommes que j' ai *entendu* parler.

You see, that in all these cases, there is a verb coming after the participle, and expressing, together with the participle, but *one idea*. If it were not for this reason, the participle would change its form ; as :

l' habit que j' ai *fait*,  
les habits que j' ai *faits*.

There is another exception ; but it seems rather matter of taste : good authors differ in opinion about it. I will, however, give an example or two relating to it. The French sometimes put the nominative case *after the verb* ; thus : le taureau *qu' a vendu* Jacques. The usual order of the words is, le taureau *que* Jacques *a vendu*. Now, these authors say, that when the nominative is placed, thus, *after the verb*, the participle is indeclinable ; as :

le taureau *qu' a vendu* Jacques,  
la vache *qu' a vendu* Jacques,  
les taureaux *qu' a vendu* Jacques.

If the nominative had gone before the verb, the participle *must* have changed its form ; as :

le taureau *que* Jacques *a vendu*,  
la vache *que* Jacques *a vendue*,  
les vaches *que* Jacques *a vendues*.

The same authors insist, that, when there comes, next after the participle, a noun, in the objective case, or an adjective *relating to the noun or pronoun* which has gone before, the participle ought not to change its form. Monsieur RESTAULT gives this example: Dieu *les* avoit créé *innocents*. The *les* (them) would require *créés*; but, those authors say, that the adjective *innocent*, coming after the participle, and having relation to *les*, the participle ought not to change its form. However, this seems to be a disputed point: we may adopt either the one manner or the other; and I have mentioned this matter here only to enable you to account for what might otherwise appear strange to you. I here conclude my remarks on the passive participle. They are long; but the matter is of uncommon importance. Every page of French print contains, in general, many of these words. When you are about to use one of them, you cannot, as in the case of the gender of nouns, get your information from the Dictionary. You must have it, if you have it at all, from principles and rules.—I shall now give you an exercise relating to the *Modes of Verbs*, which, of course, include the Participles.

#### EXERCISE XVI.

1. She is not rich enough to live without working.
2. He did that to provoke his brothers and sisters.
3. They will be too wise to prevent the land from being cultivated.
4. What does he deserve for having betrayed his country to its most deadly enemy?
5. Coming here has made the fortunes of thousands of adventurers.
6. Putting up a house on that barren spot of land is very unwise.
7. Study constantly if you be in good health.
8. Give to the poor rather than take from them.
9. Little means as she may have, she makes a pretty good figure.
10. It is for you to talk to them about an affair which belongs to you.

11. It is very proper for you to take effectual means to punish him.
12. He is exceedingly addicted to the shameful vice of gaming.
13. I am tired of living here and doing nothing.
14. Go and tell my bailiff to come to me as soon as he can.
15. Go and inquire about our neighbour who was so ill the other day.
16. They greatly rejoice at your victory over your enemies.
17. By going to London you will gain a great deal.
18. In minding your business you will make yourself and your parents happy.
19. I wish with all my heart that you may do it.
20. I know nothing more fortunate than that.
21. It is better for a country to be destroyed than for it to be governed by wicked men.
22. It was better for him to go on horse-back than to ride in a coach.
23. It is of great consequence that they should explicitly declare themselves.
24. I do not believe that the weather will be fine to-morrow.
25. If the fine weather begin and continue for some time.
26. He is the greatest rogue in the whole world.
27. Coming to England has saved his life.
28. Going to France, in the summer time, is very pleasant.
29. Mowing, or reaping, is hard work.
30. It does not become you to be very nice about it.
31. Whatever they may say about it, it is a bad affair.
32. I know nothing more provoking than that.
33. Few things are more dishonourable than lying.
34. Drinking to excess soon makes a man despired.
35. Eating, drinking and sleeping are necessary.
36. I am very sorry that your brother is not come.
37. Why should he not come next week?
38. It seems that they set off very early in the morning.



39. Is it well known, that the town is taken ?
40. It is well known, that the town is taken.
41. It is clear as day-light that the evil will come.
42. It is not quite clear that the evil will come.
43. It was evident, that he could not defend himself.
44. It was not evident that he could not defend himself.
45. It seems to me that you are in the wrong.
46. It seems that he is in the wrong.
47. It is not just, nor is it decent, that he should do that.
48. Do you believe that you will come next Saturday ?
49. Would to God that he were well.
50. Were you to lose your fortune you ought to go.
51. God grant that she may recover her health.
52. You say that she will recover : God send it !
53. I hope she will not die. God forbid !
54. God forbid that I should do any such thing
55. What ! should we pardon them for that ?
56. What do you want me to do ?
57. I want you to rise early and to be industrious.
58. I want a good saw. Do you think that I shall find one ?
59. I think that you will not find one in this village.
60. I do not doubt you will find one in the town.
61. They must be very industrious if they suppress him.
62. I do not doubt of that, I confess.
63. I doubt that he will do it.
64. I doubt that he will not do it.
65. I do not believe that she will come next week.
66. His talking to them has done the mischief.
67. Their babbling has made their master angry.
68. The singing of birds is very delightful.
69. What I like best in birds is their singing.
70. Though he sell his land, he will not be ruined.
71. He was killed during last war.
72. The tents have been taken by the enemy.
73. The tents which the enemy has taken.
74. What tents has he taken ?
75. He has taken all the tents that we had.
76. I am surprised that you have done it.
77. They are writing in my room.

78. You have lost your money by not having asked for it.
79. It is very indecent to behave in this manner.
80. My father is seeking for a large and fine farm.
81. They are very angry that you have been able to do it.
82. They insist absolutely that she shall stay no longer.
83. We were all very much surprised.
84. There are four men planting trees.
85. I see the greyhounds running after the hare?
86. Bring us some good and hot coffee.
87. Let us have a large and fat leg of mutton.
88. I am far from saying, or from thinking, that she will die.
89. There he is coming to ask you how you do.
90. This is my whip: there is yours: and there is theirs.
91. Do you suppose that I will give you my house and furniture for nothing?
92. The corn was sold in the market.
93. The apples were sold to him.
94. The oxen were sold last week.
95. The cows have been sold this week.

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## LETTER XXIV.

### SYNTAX OF VOULOIR, POUVOIR, AND DEVOIR.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

444. Before you enter on the subject of this letter, look at paragraphs 424 and 425. Indeed, you must not only look at them but read them with attention. You see, then, that the different endings, the differences in the form, of the French verbs, *are not always sufficient* to express in French that which is expressed in English by our little words, which are called *signs*, and which are, *shall, will, can, could, might, should, would* and *ought*. We

have *must* besides ; but that is, as we have seen, answered by the *il faut* of the French. Let us take an example of this insufficiency.

*I shall come* here to-morrow, je *viendrai* ici demain.

*I will come* here to-morrow, je *viendrai* ici demain.

Thus, you see, there is only the one French word, *viendrai*, to answer to *shall come*, and *will come*; and, we all know how different these are in their meanings. When I say *I shall come*, I simply tell you of my *intention*; but, *will come*, expresses my *resolution*, or at least, a *promise*, or *assurance*, on my part. Yet, the French verb has no change to express this difference. Their verb does for the simple telling or announcing; but, to do justice to *I will*, the French must have some other word, or words, brought in; such as, je vous *promets* or je suis *résolu*.

You *shall* not have that card, vous n' *aurez* pas cette carte.

You *will* not have that card, vous n' *aurez* pas cette carte.

The French verbs are the same, you see, in both cases; but, in the first phrase, I express *my will* and *determination* against your having the card; and, in the second, I merely *foretell* or *observe*, that you will not have the card. See, now, how the proper translation of these two English phrases would stand, supposing me to be talking to you.

You *shall* not { je ne *veux* pas que vous ayez cette carte—or  
have that card, { je ne vous *permettrai* pas d'avoir cette carte.

You *will* not have that card, vous n'*aurez* pas cette carte.

In the latter case I say, in this French phrase, simply, that you *will not* have the card; but, in the other case, I say, *my will is* that you have not the card; or, I will *not permit* you to have the card. So that, you clearly see that the changes in the form of the French verb are by no means sufficient to express that which is expressed in English by our little words. As long as the business of the verb is merely to announce or declare, the French changes answer the purpose pretty well; but, wherever our little words or verbal signs; wherever there is *will*,

*permission*, *power*, or *duty* expressed by these signs; there the changes in the form of the French verb fail of being sufficient for the purpose of answering fully and clearly to our verbs.

445. But, the French have words, which (in great part at least) make up for this deficiency. These are three verbs which express, respectively, *will*, *power*, and *duty*; and which, therefore, are employed to answer (in most cases) to our *will* and *would*; our *may*, *can*, *could*, and *might*; and our *should* and *ought*. I say in *great part*, in *most cases*; because, there is no complete rule as to the matter. You will observe (and, indeed, you must already have observed in the conjugations), that VOULOIR, POUVOIR, and DEVOIR, are verbs complete in all their parts. In short, you know them perfectly well in all their numbers, persons, times, and modes; and you can, I hope, write down the conjugations of them without looking even at your card of verbs. You will, however, mind, now, that VOULOIR means *to will*, *to be willing*, *to desire*, *to wish*, *to be determined*, *to be resolved*, and when in the negative, it expresses *objection* and *opposition*. You will mind also, that POUVOIR means, *to be able*, *to have power*, *to have liberty or permission*, to do or to be. Mind, moreover, DEVOIR, though it means *to owe*, means also *to have the duty* of doing or of being. Now, then, mind, that, in *general*, these *signs* of ours are answered by some part of these French verbs, as placed in the following table:

will, } by some part of } vouloir.  
would, }

may, }  
can, } by some part of } pouvoir.  
could, }  
might, }

should, } by some part of } devoir.  
ought, }

shall, } sometimes by the change in the verb, and sometimes  
by some word expressing *obligation* or *permission*.

After all, however, you must bear in mind, that it is *not always* that any of these signs are thus turned

into French. But, you will soon learn (after all that you have learned) to make use of these important French words properly.

446. We will begin with *VOULOIR*. When we make use of our signs, *will*, *would*, the French employ the infinitive of their verb; and they employ some part of *vouloir* to answer to our *will*, or *would*; as:

I will kill,  
I would kill,  
you will kill,  
they will kill,

je veux tuer.  
je voudrais tuer.  
vous voulez tuer.  
ils veulent tuer.

This is always the manner of turning these signs into French. Our *will* applies to both present and future. I suppose it here to apply to the present, where it expresses *will* or *resolution*, and must be translated by *vouloir*. When it simply *intimates*, or *foretells*, the changes in the French verb are sufficient; as:

you will kill,  
he will kill,

vous tuerez.  
il tuera.

The French, you see, take our principal verb; they translate it; they put it in the infinitive; they then put before it a part of the verb *vouloir*, to answer to our *will* or *would*. Thus, in this sentence:

I *will* write in spite of him, Je *veux* écrire malgré lui.

You see, they take our *write* (not our *to write*), and put *écrire* in place of it; and then they put a part of their verb *vouloir*, according to mode, number and person. If, instead of *will*, or *would*, we use any part of *to wish*, *to desire*, *to be willing*, or the like, the French take this verb, and translate it by some part of *vouloir*; as:

I *wish* him to write to me, je *veux* qu' il m'écrive.  
I *desire* him to write, je *veux* qu'il écrive.

We may also say, je *souhaite* qu' il m' écrive, je *désire* qu' il écrive: but custom and idiom lean strongly towards *vouloir*. I should observe before I quit this verb, that, when we use the verb *to be willing*, or any expression of the same, or nearly

the same, meaning, the French, in rendering the phrase, put *bien* before *vouloir*; as:

I am willing for him to write,—or	} je veux <i>bien</i> qu'il écrive.
I consent to his writing,—or	
I like for him to write.	

When we use the verb *to have* with *will* or *would*, the French use *vouloir* without noticing our *to have*; as:

we will have him go,	nous voulons qu'il aille.
you would have it so,	vous le vouliez ainsi.
they will always have it their	ils le veulent toujours à leur
own way,	manière.
I will have it so,	je le veux ainsi.

When we make use of the verb *want* to express *wishing* or *desiring*, the French render it by *vouloir*, and, in this way *vouloir* is in very common use; as:

what do you want?	que voulez-vous?
I want some bread and some	je veux du pain et du vin, s'il
wine, if you please.	vous plaît.
I want to see fine weather.	je voudrais voir du beau temps.
she does not know what she	elle ne sait ce qu'elle veut.
wants.	

Very numerous are the uses of the verb *vouloir*; but what has been here said respecting it, will, I trust, be sufficient.

447. *Pouvoir*. This word, besides being a verb, is a *noun*, meaning *power*. As a verb, its meaning has just been described in paragraph 445. The verb *pouvoir* means, then, in general, *to be able*. Our *may*, *might*, *can*, and *could*, are all translated into French by *pouvoir*. Great care is necessary, in foreigners, to distinguish when one of these is to be used, in *English*, and when the other; but there is no difficulty in turning them into French, seeing that they are all rendered into that language by one and the same verb. And, as to the circumstances of time and mode and person, the French verb changes its form as in other cases. It is, in fact, the conjugation of *pouvoir*, with another verb: *pouvoir*, like *vouloir*, being used, in this case, instead of our signs; examples:

you may come next week, vous pouvez venir la semaine  
prochaine.  
he may go away when he will, il peut s'en aller quand il vou-  
dra.  
they can read and write very well, ils peuvent lire et écrire fort  
bien.  
we could not come yesterday, nous ne pûmes venir hier.  
they might be rich if they would, ils pourroient être riches s'ils  
le vouloient.  
if he can come I shall be glad of it, s'il peut venir j'en serai bien  
aise.

Thus, then, it is merely conjugating the verb *pouvoir*, as in the case of *vouloir*, and putting the French principal verb in the infinitive. This verb, like *VOULOIR*, is in constant use, as, indeed, it must, from the nature of its functions, necessarily be. It is often employed to express *capability*, *possibility*, and the like, and in many other cases which have nothing to do with *can*, *could*, *may*, and *might*; or, at least, where they are not employed in English; as:

that is not possible,	cela ne se peut.
he was quite done for,	il n'en pouvoit plus.
that is possible,	cela est possible, or, cela se peut.

These are odd expressions. Such they appear to us: but, they are correct, and they are lively and smooth. However, they forcibly characterize this verb *pouvoir*. Again:

can he come?	peut-il venir?
may he ride your horse?	peut-il monter votre cheval?
could he ride your horse?	pouvoit-il monter votre cheval?
could he not ride my horse?	ne pouvoit-il pas monter mon cheval?

Mind, in some cases *savoir* is employed synonymously with *pouvoir*. In this sense *savoir* means *to know how*; and, if you observe, *to know how* to do a thing is, in English, nearly the same thing as *to be able* to do it; as:

I know how to make books,—or	je sais faire des livres.
I am able to make books,	je peux faire des livres.

But, it is *pouvoir* that you are to look to for the answering to our signs *may*, *might*, *can*, and *could*.

When an English phrase, having either of these words in it, is to be put into French, look to POUVOIR.

448. We now come to DEVOIR, which answers to our *should* and *ought*; or, at least, to *should* generally, and to *ought* always. *Devoir* means *to owe*, and our *ought* is, doubtless, a part of our verb *to owe*; for, what is, I *ought* to go, but I *owe* to go? The origin of *should* is less evident; but, the main difference in the two is, that *ought* takes the *to* after it before a verb, and that *should* does not. This shuts out *should* from being used before infinitives, and *ought* from being used before the other parts of the verb. But, in the eye of the French language they appear to be of equal merit and power; for DEVOIR answers to both; as:

You *ought* to be obedient to your master, } vous *devriez* obéir  
 You *should* be obedient to your master, } à votre maître.

There is, however, this difference in these two English verbal signs; that *ought* always implies *duty*, while *should* does not always do this. And, which is the material point for us, *ought* must always have *devoir* to answer to it, while *should* may be rendered by a change in the form of the French verb; as:

if he *should* travel in Spain, s'il *voyageoit* en Espagne.  
 if he *ought* to travel in Spain, s'il *devoit* voyager en Espagne.

*Devoir* is made use of sometimes for *must*. It is in cases where *must* does not imply any command or necessity; as: you *must* be very hungry; vous *devez* avoir grand faim. You may say, in French, *il faut* que vous ayez grand faim. One may be as good as the other; but, observe this phrase; il *doit* se marier demain. You cannot say, as a translation to this, he *must* be married to-morrow. Neither will *should* or *ought* do. The real English of it is: he *is to be* married to-morrow. You see that these verbs are of great importance. They answer to whole English phrases in many instances. They are of more consequence than hundreds of other



verbs. They are amongst the pivots, on which the French language turns. To this knowledge that I have of their importance you have to ascribe this present LETTER, which, when I have added a short Exercise to it, will, I trust, leave you with very little to do in the learning of the French language.

## EXERCISE XVII.

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Now will I give you the seventeenth Exercise.</li> <li>2. Shall it be a long one, or a short one?</li> <li>3. If I should find your son, I will send him home.</li> <li>4. He would soon make a fortune, if he might work the mines.</li> <li>5. Would you soon make a fortune if you might soon work them?</li> <li>6. I cannot ride that wicked horse without breaking my neck.</li> <li>7. You and he might take that liberty, but she might not.</li> <li>8. She ought not to do it at any rate.</li> <li>9. You should give him that farm.</li> <li>10. If he could give it to them he would do it.</li> <li>11. He will go from this place, and his brother shall go.</li> <li>12. We shall sell our corn and wine and they shall sell theirs.</li> <li>13. They shall have all that I ought not to keep.</li> <li>14. I am very willing to let you stay here.</li> <li>15. But I am unable to give you victuals and drink.</li> <li>16. Can that be? What can he want with me?</li> <li>17. What do they want with us?</li> <li>18. Is it possible that they want our money?</li> <li>19. Can there be such wicked people in the world?</li> <li>20. Did they wish to see the town on fire?</li> </ol> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>21. Will you have some kidney beans, or some peas.</li> <li>22. I do not want any of either.</li> <li>23. What do you wish to have, then?</li> <li>24. Shall she have some flowers?</li> <li>25. Does she desire to have any of those that I sowed?</li> <li>26. Would to God that they would get up early.</li> <li>27. God forbid that I should have a parcel of sluggards in my house!</li> <li>28. Though it were to cost me my life.</li> <li>29. Might he not have asked her what she meant?</li> <li>30. He might have done it, but she might have refused to answer.</li> <li>31. Ought you not to compel him to answer?</li> <li>32. Is there a road to be found equal to that?</li> <li>33. Are there not a great many questions here?</li> <li>34. Can you find more in a similar space, in any book?</li> <li>35. Can they be angry with me?</li> <li>36. Will there be eggs for supper?</li> <li>37. My eyes will be dim.</li> <li>38. Shall I make a knot in the string?</li> <li>39. His heart would ache, if he were to lose his cause.</li> <li>40. There ought to be 400 leaves in the book.</li> <li>41. You shall gather some flowers.</li> <li>42. They will be in mourning next week.</li> </ol> |
|---|---|

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| 43. His eye will be cured soon.                  | 48. You shall tell them what you think of it. |
| 44. I wish they would come without delay.        | 49. It may happen that they will go.          |
| 45. He might go, if he would.                    | 50. It may happen that they cannot write.     |
| 46. They may come whenever they please.          | 51. Can she come? May be so.                  |
| 47. He was to have gone off for Paris last week. | 52. You ought not to take it.                 |

## LETTER XXV.

## SYNTAX OF ADVERBS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

449. In paragraph 37, I explained to you the nature of *Adverbs*: and, in paragraph 142 to 151 inclusive, I gave you rules for the *forming* of the words of this part of speech. You will now read all those paragraphs over again, and pay strict attention to what you find in them.

450. I have, in this place, only to make a remark or two as to the *placing* of the adverb in sentences. The place of the French adverb is, in *many* cases, the same as that of our adverb; but *not in all* cases. It generally comes after a verb and before an adjective; as

Ils travaillent bien,  
Le vin est très-bon,

they work well.  
the wine is very good.

451. When the French verb is in the infinitive, the adverb is sometimes put before it, when it is not put before it in English; as: pour *bien* faire; in order to do *well*. But, this is very rarely the case.

452. When adverbs are *compound*; that is to say consist of *more than one word*, (as was before fully explained), they follow the verb invariably. There is, and there can be, no difficulty attending the use of this part of speech. The only difference, worth notice, in the two languages, with respect to the using of the adverb, is this: the French hardly ever put the adverb *before the verb*, and we often do it; as: j' *écris souvent*; and not, as we say, je *souvent écris*.

## EXERCISE XVIII.

1. They, at this moment, do not know it.
2. They do not now go on horse-back.

3. It is the fashion now-a-days to go on foot.
4. I will do it directly.
5. She came yesterday and also the day before.
6. Formerly there were trees in that field.
7. They told me of it before.
8. You must come hither to-morrow.
9. I beg you to write to me very soon.
10. I often eat cherries and apples.
11. They will very soon finish their work.
12. We shall write to-morrow or next day.
13. He will go shortly to see his father.
14. The affair will be ended next week.
15. Where have they been this long while?
16. Give them some food from time to time.
17. Whence come all these people?
18. What do they all come hither for?
19. What induces them to come this way?
20. It is easier for them to go that way.
21. They set out thence every day at one o'clock.
22. When you go up-stairs, stay there.
23. He is to be found nowhere.
24. There is too much water in your wine.
25. Perhaps you will see him by-and-bye.
26. They said it in jest, but it is too true.
27. They are constantly writing and reading.
28. She was taken away by force.
29. That is extremely wicked on their part.
30. You speak at random.
31. How often have you been there?
32. How far is it to the wheat-field?
33. I very well know what you mean.

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## LETTER XXVI.

### SYNTAX OF PREPOSITIONS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

453. It is almost mere matter of form to make separate divisions relative to the Syntax of these indeclinable parts of speech. The words belonging to them are nothing of themselves; they cannot be

used without nouns, pronouns, and verbs; and therefore, in treating of the Syntax of these, I have, in fact, treated of that of *Prepositions*.

454. Go back, however, to paragraph 38; and also to the whole of Letter XI., including paragraphs from 152 to 161. Pay attention to what you there find; and, there is little to add here. The business of Syntax is, first, to teach us how to make our words *agree* with each other in sentences. There can be no disagreement in the case of prepositions; for they never change their form. Then, as to *government*, prepositions, when put before nouns and pronouns, cause them to be in the objective case. But, this has been most amply explained in the letters relating to nouns and pronouns. As to the *placing* of the prepositions in the sentence, there is no difference worthy of notice in the two languages. We say, *in* the house, *for* the horse, *to* the town, *against* the door, *upon* the floor; and the French say *dans* la maison, *pour* le cheval, *à* la ville, *contre* la porte, *sur* le plancher. There are certain French prepositions, which, in different cases, must be rendered in English in a different manner. It is nearly the same with regard to our prepositions, when rendered in French. I have before noticed, that, while we say, think *of* a thing, the French say, think *to* a thing. But, to notice *all the instances* of difference between the two languages would require a book ten times as large as the French and English Dictionary in quarto. It would, besides, be to load the memory in vain; seeing that all the difficulties arising from this cause are speedily removed by practice.

#### EXERCISE XIX.

1. Have you thought of the affair that I spoke to you of?
2. Yes; but I do not know what to do about it.
3. Whose book is that? It is John's or his sister's.
4. The house must be built by next Christmas.
5. They fought with bayonets and swords.
6. You enjoy your riches.

7. They live near to your country-house.

8. You ought to obey your master.

I give these few instances merely to warn you against *literal* translation. You will see, that the French say, near *of* your house; and obey *to* your master; and enjoy *of* your riches. But, a short time will give you a complete knowledge of all these matters.

## LETTER XXVII.

### SYNTAX OF CONJUNCTIONS.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

455. The remarks made in paragraph 453 apply in this case also. Every thing relative to conjunctions has been taught in the Etymology of Conjunctions, and in the Syntax of the other parts of speech, especially that of Verbs. You must go back, however, to paragraph 39, and to the whole of Letter XII, consisting of paragraphs from 162 to 167 inclusive. Those parts contain a full account of this part of speech. Conjunctions have a government of *modes* of verbs; but this matter is, you know, most amply explained in the Syntax of Verbs, particularly in paragraphs from 414 to 422. All that I shall, therefore, add, upon this subject is, a short exercise, consisting of phrases, which must, in French, have a turn very different from that which they have in English.

### EXERCISE XX.

1. Whether you do it, or not, I shall come.
2. A great building either of brick or of stone.
3. Either from love or from fear, he praised them.
4. If they should die, what will become of us?
5. If they should consent to it, what will you say?
6. When you write, let me know it.
7. When they come, they will remain a long while.
8. If you wish to go, and will come here in good time.
9. If they desire to have it, and will pay for it.
10. Even if he were to give his whole fortune.

## LETTER XXVIII.

## TRANSLATION OF THE EXERCISES.

MY DEAR RICHARD,

456. The Translation of the Exercises is given, in order that you, when you have finished *your* translation of an Exercise, may refer to this Translation, in order to see *whether you have done your work correctly*. But, mind, it would be mere childishness to be looking at this translation, until you have *finished* an Exercise. When you have finished an Exercise, and consulted with your Grammar as to every phrase in it: then *make a fair copy of it*: look at it attentively over and over again; and, when you have made it what you look upon as complete: when you have put all the points; all the accents; every thing; then, *turn to this translation*, and compare your translation with it, phrase by phrase.

## EXERCISE I.

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| 1. Cent livres, cinq schelins.                    | 14. Il est arrivé rarement une chose semblable. |
| 2. Des plumes à 6 s. le cent.                     | 15. Quel jardin!                                |
| 3. Des canards à dix sous la pièce.               | 16. Quel bruit!                                 |
| 4. Avez-vous entendu parler de rien de semblable? | 17. Quelle belle fleur!                         |
| 5. Si un tel vient.                               | 18. La jolie fille qu' Emma!                    |
| 6. Mille soldats se sont mis en marche.           | 19. Que son père est riche!                     |
| 7. Cent sont de retour.                           | 20. Que l'argent a de charmes!                  |
| 8. Je n'ai pas vu d'enfant si sage.               | 21. Quel cri horrible!                          |
| 9. On voit rarement un homme si méchant.          | 22. Quel sot de garçon.                         |
| 10. Un jardin avec un mur d'un côté.              | 23. Un homme qui a plus d'un défaut.            |
| 11. Un bon poëte, mais pas un Boileau.            | 24. Une table qui a un pied de cassé.           |
| 12. Il est médecin, et son frère est procureur.   | 25. La barbe d'un juif. Un cheval de Barbarie.  |
| 13. Il est riche, chose qu'il aime.               | 26. Donnez-m'en une phrase pour exemple.        |
|   | 27. Une poule avec un poussin.                  |
|   | 28. Une voiture attelée d'un cheval.            |
|   | 29. Un voile et une voile.                      |
|   | 30. Une caisse de livres.                       |
|   | 31. Un livre et une fleur.                      |
|   | 32. Un jardinier et un laquais.                 |

33. Cent d'entre eux.  
 34. Une heure et demie.  
 35. Une demi-heure.

## EXERCISE II.

1. L'Amérique, l'Asie, l'Afrique, et l'Europe.
2. La Prusse fait partie de l'Allemagne.
3. Venise, Valence, Grenade.
4. Il vient de la Rochelle.
5. Il demeure au Havre de Grâce.
6. Il est parti pour la Caïenne.
7. Je demeure en Angleterre.
8. Vous venez du Portugal.
9. Ils résident à la Martinique.
10. Elle va en Italie.
11. La Tamise.
12. Le Rhin.
13. La Séverne, la Seine.
14. L'ivrognerie est détestable.
15. Le meurtre mérite la mort.
16. La paresse conduit à la pauvreté.
17. De la marne à la surface, ensuite de la terre glaise, et puis de la craie.
18. L'orge est chère cette année.
19. Les chevaux mangent de l'herbe et du foin.
20. Le cheval est un animal utile.
21. Les oiseaux volent; les faucons volent.
22. Les faucons tuent les autres oiseaux.
23. Il vient de la Chine.
24. Le vin de Bourgogne.
25. Le drap d'Angleterre.
26. Les chevaux de Flandres.
27. Les vaches de Normandie.
28. Les arbres viennent bien les étés favorables.
29. L'été est passé.
30. Je vois que les arbres viennent bien.
31. Le Capitaine White est parti.
32. Les oiseaux chantent dans le printemps.
33. Comment vous portez-vous, M. le Capitaine?
34. Les poires sont mûres en automne.
35. Le Docteur Johnson craignoit la mort.
36. La reine Elizabeth et le Pape Sixte.
37. Les grolles mangent du blé.
38. Les garçons tuent les grolles.
39. Les garçons tuent les grolles.
40. Les philosophes ne s'accordent pas.
41. Il est à la campagne.
42. Elle étoit en ville.
43. Dieu, le ciel, et l'enfer.
44. Les jardins ont un aspect riant au printemps.
45. Les fleurs se fanent en été.
46. Elles meurent en automne.
47. L'amour faisoit le sujet de la lettre.
48. Les pommes sont un bon fruit.
49. Les pommes ne sont pas chères cette année.
50. Les renards tuent les poules.
51. Du pain, de la viande, de la farine, du beurre.
52. La terre, l'air, le feu et l'eau; tout s'allie.
53. L'air est froid aujourd'hui.
54. L'hiver approche.
55. Il plut beaucoup hier.
56. L'avoine est très-chère.
57. Le fromage est très-rare.
58. Je préfère le noir au bleu.
59. Il aime la chasse.
60. L'exercice est bon pour l'homme.
61. Il se tua à force de boire.
62. Les hommes prudents évitent les querelles.
63. Les oiseaux chantent tandis que les paresseux ronflent.

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|---|--|
| 54. L'homme, venez ici ! la femme, allez par-là !       | 16. Il y en a six de blancs et deux de noirs.              |
| 55. Du bois, de l'eau et du feu.                        | 17. Cinq de tués et un de blessé.                          |
| 56. La lumière et l'obscurité, la chaleur et le froid.  | 18. Ils ont de bonne viande.                               |
| 57. Les articles forment une partie du discours.        | 19. Elle a de beaux yeux.                                  |
| 58. Il a des bras.                                      | 20. Les moutons mangent de l'herbe.                        |
| 59. Il a des cheveux noirs.                             | 21. J' ai des moutons.                                     |
| 70. Les Hollandois font le commerce.                    | 22. Les moutons que j'ai vendus.                           |
| 71. Les Américains partagent les lacs avec les Anglois. | 23. Vous aviez du fromage.                                 |
| 72. Ils vont au Canada.                                 | 24. Elle aura beaucoup de pain.                            |
| 73. La nouvelle Ecosse est un pays froid.               | 25. Une quantité de terre.                                 |
| 74. Le maïs vient bien en France.                       | 26. Donnez-nous encore de l'argent.                        |
| 75. Le tabac est une production de la Virginie.         | 27. Rien de bien rare.                                     |
| 76. Le coton vient de la Géorgie.                       | 28. Tant de livres.  |
| 77. De la Floride et du Brésil.                         | 29. Fort peu de sagesse.                                   |
| 78. Les Péruviens ont de l'or en abondance.             | 30. Combien de fenêtres.                                   |
| 79. Les Mexicains ont de l'argent en grand quantité.    | 31. Combien de terre.                                      |
|   | 32. Beaucoup de chagrin.                                   |
|   | 33. Beaucoup de plaisir.                                   |
|   | 34. Beaucoup de patience.                                  |
|   | 35. Beaucoup de peine.                                     |
|   | 36. Quel vin souhaitez-vous ?                              |
|   | 37. Donnez-moi du rouge.                                   |
|   | 38. De bien honnêtes gens.                                 |
|   | 39. Il y a maintenant beaucoup de choux.                   |
|   | 40. Des oignons et du persil dans le jardin.               |
|   | 41. Le pommier est une guirlande lorsqu'il est en fleur.   |
|   | 42. Les cerisiers sont aussi très-beaux.                   |
|   | 43. Ce poirier est bien chargé de fruit.                   |
|   | 44. Les poires sont à bon marché cette année-ci.           |
|   | 45. Les touffes de framboisiers n'ont rien de remarquable. |
|   | 46. Mais leur fruit est excellent.                         |
|   | 47. Quelles belles fraises !                               |
|   | 48. Les épinards et les haricots.                          |
|   | 49. Le marché abonde en légumes.                           |

## EXERCISE III.

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|--------------------------------------|--|
| 1. Il a du foin à vendre.            |  |
| 2. Il a du foin dans sa charrette.   |  |
| 3. Le foin est abondant.             |  |
| 4. Le foin est cher cette année.     |  |
| 5. Elle porte de la soie.            |  |
| 6. La soie qu' elle porte est belle. |  |
| 7. La soie est très-légère.          |  |
| 8. A-t-il des chevaux ?              |  |
| 9. Oui, il en a quelques-uns.        |  |
| 10. Il a des chiens.                 |  |
| 1. Ont-ils des oiseaux ?             |  |
| 2. Les chiens aboient.               |  |
| 3. J'entends du bruit.               |  |
| 4. J'entends beaucoup de bruit.      |  |
| 15. Il y a du danger.                |  |



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|--|---|
| <p>50. Un temps humide est bon pour ce terrain.</p> <p>51. Tout le foin est gâté.</p> <p>52. Le foin sera cher l'année prochaine.</p> <p>53. Les haricots sont très-abondans.</p> <p>54. Les laitues sont bonnes en salade.</p> <p>55. L'huile, le vinaigré, le poivre, le sel et la moutarde sont des choses fort utiles.</p> <p>56. L'huile d'olive est bien meilleure que celle de pavot.</p> <p>57. La première se fait en France et en Italie.</p> <p>58. La seconde se fait en Allemagne.</p> <p>59. Le mont de sable est très-haut.</p> <p>60. Les pierres ne font point de mal à la terre.</p> <p>61. Le fourrage est à bon marché.</p> <p>62. Une grande quantité de terre.</p> <p>63. Les alouettes restent dans les champs.</p> <p>64. Du poisson, de la viande, de la volaille, du grain, de la farine.</p> <p>65. Nous avons du poisson.</p> <p>66. Les abeilles n'aiment pas les guêpes.</p> <p>67. Le miel est très-utile dans une famille.</p> | <p>7. Huit chevaux, neuf vaches, dix cochons.</p> <p>8. Onze noix, une noix.</p> <p>9. Un enfant, douze enfans.</p> <p>10. Un engagement.</p> <p>11. Treize engagements.</p> <p>12. Quatorze choux.</p> <p>13. Un fort beau chou.</p> <p>14. Un chapeau noir.</p> <p>15. Beaucoup de richesses.</p> <p>16. Quinze chapeaux.</p> <p>17. Seize hiboux.</p> <p>18. Dix-sept clous.</p> <p>19. Un très-grand mal.</p> <p>20. Un grand nombre de maux.</p> <p>21. L'œil du cheval.</p> <p>22. Mes yeux sont foibles.</p> <p>23. L'eau est claire.</p> <p>24. Les eaux de Bath.</p> <p>25. Dix-huit paniers.</p> <p>26. Dix-neuf bonnets de nuit.</p> <p>27. Vingt portes de jardin.</p> <p>28. Vingt-et-un poissons de rivière.</p> <p>29. La tête du loup.</p> <p>30. Les griffes du chat.</p> <p>31. Le palais du roi.</p> <p>32. Trente chandeliers d'or.</p> <p>33. Quarante assiettes d'étain.</p> <p>34. Cinquante cuilliers d'argent.</p> <p>35. Soixante souliers de cuir.</p> <p>36. Soixante-dix huttes de bois.</p> <p>37. Quatre-vingt pelles-à-feu.</p> <p>38. Quatre-vingt-dix agneaux.</p> <p>39. Un agneau et un mouton.</p> <p>40. Cent bœufs.</p> <p>41. Mille oiseaux.</p> <p>42. Un oiseau et un renard.</p> <p>43. Dieu est tout-puissant.</p> <p>44. Les dieux des Grecs.</p> <p>45. Un lieu solitaire.</p> <p>46. Des lieux solitaires.</p> <p>47. Il a un emploi.</p> <p>48. A la poste aux lettres.</p> <p>49. Une livre de pain.</p> <p>50. Un livre pour vous.</p> <p>51. Le page du roi.</p> <p>52. Une page d'un livre.</p> <p>53. A sa maison.</p> |
|--|---|

#### EXERCISE IV.

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|--|---|
| <p>1. La maison est grande.</p> <p>2. Une main et un pied.</p> <p>3. Deux maisons et trois champs.</p> <p>4. Quatre fils, cinq filles.</p> <p>5. Six enfans, sept amis.</p> <p>6. Un cheval, une vache, un cochon.</p> | <p>7. Huit chevaux, neuf vaches, dix cochons.</p> <p>8. Onze noix, une noix.</p> <p>9. Un enfant, douze enfans.</p> <p>10. Un engagement.</p> <p>11. Treize engagements.</p> <p>12. Quatorze choux.</p> <p>13. Un fort beau chou.</p> <p>14. Un chapeau noir.</p> <p>15. Beaucoup de richesses.</p> <p>16. Quinze chapeaux.</p> <p>17. Seize hiboux.</p> <p>18. Dix-sept clous.</p> <p>19. Un très-grand mal.</p> <p>20. Un grand nombre de maux.</p> <p>21. L'œil du cheval.</p> <p>22. Mes yeux sont foibles.</p> <p>23. L'eau est claire.</p> <p>24. Les eaux de Bath.</p> <p>25. Dix-huit paniers.</p> <p>26. Dix-neuf bonnets de nuit.</p> <p>27. Vingt portes de jardin.</p> <p>28. Vingt-et-un poissons de rivière.</p> <p>29. La tête du loup.</p> <p>30. Les griffes du chat.</p> <p>31. Le palais du roi.</p> <p>32. Trente chandeliers d'or.</p> <p>33. Quarante assiettes d'étain.</p> <p>34. Cinquante cuilliers d'argent.</p> <p>35. Soixante souliers de cuir.</p> <p>36. Soixante-dix huttes de bois.</p> <p>37. Quatre-vingt pelles-à-feu.</p> <p>38. Quatre-vingt-dix agneaux.</p> <p>39. Un agneau et un mouton.</p> <p>40. Cent bœufs.</p> <p>41. Mille oiseaux.</p> <p>42. Un oiseau et un renard.</p> <p>43. Dieu est tout-puissant.</p> <p>44. Les dieux des Grecs.</p> <p>45. Un lieu solitaire.</p> <p>46. Des lieux solitaires.</p> <p>47. Il a un emploi.</p> <p>48. A la poste aux lettres.</p> <p>49. Une livre de pain.</p> <p>50. Un livre pour vous.</p> <p>51. Le page du roi.</p> <p>52. Une page d'un livre.</p> <p>53. A sa maison.</p> |
|--|---|

4. De la rue.
5. Au champ.
6. Aux parcs.
7. Après le carrosse.
8. Chapitre premier.
9. Livre deuxième.
10. Un traité de Grammaire.
11. Entrez, Monsieur.
12. Priez ce monsieur d'entrer.
13. J'apperçois quelques messieurs.
14. Monsieur, j'ai vu les messieurs.
15. Entrez, Messieurs.
16. Messieurs, j'ai parlé à ces messieurs.
17. Autant de beaux jardins.
18. Devant le trône.
19. Hormis le domestique.
20. Au milieu des buissons.
21. Dans les nids d'oiseaux.
22. Depuis Mardi dernier.
23. Vers Londres.
24. Les dames s'en vont.
25. Les Lords restent ici.
26. Allez, monsieur l'impudent.
27. De l'eau de rivière pour faire de la bière.
28. Madame, j'ai vu la dame.
29. Mesdames, je m'en vais.
30. Allez chez Monsieur White.
31. Les propriétés de Guillaume, de Jean, et de Richard.
32. A qui est cette plume ?
33. La position de ce pays.
34. La situation du gouverneur.
35. La laine des moutons est bonne à faire du drap.
36. Ils parlent de la maison de la dame.
37. Madame White est morte.
38. Joseph, Pierre, et quelques amis.
39. Une cuillier d'argent pleine de vin.
40. Un pot plein de bière.
41. Ce sentier a cent pieds de long.

92. La mort de sa mère.
93. Le mariage de son fils.
94. La bonne fortune de son frère.
95. Il a fait le commerce du cuivre.
96. Les voitures et les chevaux coûtent de l'argent.
97. Le chêne est un bel arbre.
98. Les planches de chêne durent long-temps.
99. Des ormes dans les haies.

**EXERCISE V.**

1. Vous et moi, nous allons souper.
2. Vous, votre sœur, et moi, nous aurons de l'argent demain.
3. Nous sommes fort heureux dans ce pays, elle et moi.
4. Ils me frappent aussi bien que lui.
5. Ils m'aiment aussi bien qu'elle.
6. Puissiez-vous devenir riche !
7. Si vous m'abandonniez pour toujours.
8. Oui, repartit-il. Non, dit-il.
9. Je les vois tous les jours, lui et son père.
10. Il leur donne toujours quelque chose à manger.
11. Ils dînent très-souvent ensemble.
12. Faites cela, je vous prie, à ma considération.
13. Le cheval est à moi, et la vache est à elle.
14. Donnez-moi un peu de votre bois.
15. Il leur rapporte tout ce que je lui dis.
16. Elle n'avoit aucune affection pour eux.
17. Les champs leur appartiennent.

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|--|---|
| 18. C'est à lui qu'ils parlent toujours.                 | 9. Nos habits sont bleus, mais les leurs sont rouges.                   |
| 19. Ils les attendent ici aujourd'hui.                   | 10. Notre champ, leur prairie, leurs moutons.                           |
| 20. Donnez-lui quelque chose à manger et à boire.        | 11. Vos arbres sont bien plantés.                                       |
| 21. Je vous enverrai des fleurs, elles sont très-belles. | 12. La table est mauvaise; ses pieds sont foibles.                      |
| 22. Ils ou elles nous ont envoyé du fruit, aujourd'hui.  | 13. Elle est d'une vilaine couleur; le bois en est pourri.              |
| 23. Ils nous volent et nous insultent.                   | 14. Voilà votre carrosse: voici le mien.                                |
| 24. Il écrit au secrétaire, et lui envoie des messages.  | 15. Mon frère, je vous prie de venir chez moi.                          |
| 25. Ils sont plus riches que moi et que lui aussi.       | 16. Adieu, M. le Capitaine. Je suis bien aise de vous voir, mon voisin. |
| 26. Envoyez-leur un messenger.                           | 17. Ces oiseaux sont à vous, et ceux-là sont à moi.                     |
| 27. Arrêtez-le, liez-le, et envoyez-le en prison.        | 18. Ton père, ta mère et tes frères sont morts.                         |
| 28. Nous mangeons de la viande et nous buvons de l'eau.  | 19. Ses frères et ses sœurs sont tous partis.                           |
| 29. Ils s'adressent souvent à nous pour du vin.          | 20. Leurs domestiques viennent ici.                                     |
| 30. Je lui ai donné de l'or pour vous.                   | 21. Mon père, avez-vous son manteau?                                    |
| 31. Vous les vîtes aller chez elle.                      | 22. Approchez-vous, ma sœur, j'ai besoin de vous parler.                |

## EXERCISE VI.

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|--|--|
| 1. Ma main, mes plumes, mon papier, mon encre et mes livres.         | 24. Prenez vos moutons, et mettez-les avec les miens.              |
| 2. Vos plumes ne sont pas aussi bonnes que les miennes.              | 25. Séparez vos poules des miennes.                                |
| 3. Emportez les chaises de ma chambre, et mettez-les dans la sienne. | 26. Sa maison; sa maison; notre maison; leur maison; votre maison. |
| 4. Prenez-en des leurs, et mettez-le dans la mienne.                 | 27. Sa main, son bras, nos doigts, leurs jambes, mes pieds.        |
| 5. Prenez-en des miennes, et portez-les dans les siennes.            | 28. Sa robe, son bonnet, sa tête, son cou, ses dents.              |
| 6. Leurs bœufs sont plus beaux que les vôtres.                       | 29. Mettez votre foin avec le mien; séparez le vôtre du mien.      |
| 7. Mettez mes bœufs dans leur champ.                                 | 30. Il ne parle pas de votre beauté, mais de la sienne.            |
| 8. Ses souliers sont meilleurs que les siens.                        |  |

31. Il ne parle pas des siens, mais des nôtres.

32. Ce vaisseau leur appartient.

### EXERCISE VII.

1. Les personnes qui demeuroient dans cette rue.
2. Le menuisier qui fit ma table.
3. La vache qui pâit dans ma prairie.
4. Les moutons qui sont sur les collines.
5. L'homme dont je prise l'amitié.
6. Le cheval qui conduit leur voiture.
7. Le blé que vous avez vendu au marché.
8. Le blé qui croît dans vos champs.
9. Aimez ceux dont vous recevez des bienfaits.
10. Le marchand auquel il doit tant d'argent.
11. La compagnie qu'il a reçue ce soir.
12. L'oiseau qui a vu l'oiseleur.
13. L'oiseau que l'oiseleur a vu.
14. Le siècle dans lequel nous vivons.
15. Le monsieur auquel il appartient.
16. Le pays que j'aime le mieux.
17. Le temps qui me plaît le plus.
18. L'encre dont je me sers.
19. Les personnes dont vous me parliez hier.
20. L'homme qui me déplaît le plus.
21. Que nous voulez-vous ?
22. Que disent-ils à vous et à votre famille ?

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23. C'est l'affaire dont ils parloient.

24. C'est de vous et de votre fils qu'ils parlent.

25. Ce sont les dames dont il parloit.

26. Le monsieur de qui j'ai reçu tant de bontés.

27. De qui parlez-vous ?

28. Quel homme est-ce ? Quel garçon est-ce ?

29. Laquelle de ces deux chaises aimez-vous mieux ?

30. Lequel de ces trois miroirs préférez-vous ?

31. L'embarras dont il est sorti.

32. Mon ami qui est mort hier et que j'aimois tant.

33. De quoi parlez-vous ? Qu'est-ce que cela ?

34. Qui est ce monsieur ?

35. Avec quelle flotte est-il venu ?

36. Qui vous a dit cela ?

37. Un de ceux qui vinrent la nuit dernière.

38. Un des premiers qui le firent.

39. Le faucon que mon frère a tué.

40. Qui peut dire ce qui peut arriver ?

### EXERCISE VIII.

1. Il y a beaucoup de fruit dans ce pays-là.
2. Ce jardin est bien garni de fleurs.
3. Laquelle de ces fleurs aimez-vous mieux ?
4. Aimez-vous mieux celle-ci ou celle-là ?
5. C'est moi qui vous ordonne de le faire.
6. C'est le maître de la maison qui vient.
7. C'est un fort beau pays.

8. C'est grand dommage.  
 9. Cette plume est meilleure que celle-là.  
 10. Ces plumes sont aussi bonnes que celles-là.  
 11. Ce blé est à bon marché ; mais il n'est pas bon.  
 12. Votre terre est aussi bonne que celle de votre voisin.  
 13. Ceux qui pensent qu' ils gagnent à fripponner se trompent.  
 14. Celui qui se couche tard doit se lever tard.  
 15. Celle qui s'occupe trop de sa beauté.  
 16. Celui qui mène une vie réglée est plus hureux, que celui qui vit d'une manière déréglée.  
 17. Celui qui n'a point vu ce pays-ci, ne sait pas combien il est beau.  
 18. J'aime beaucoup ce que vous avez envoyé.  
 19. Il nous dit ce qu' il sait sur leur compte.  
 20. Elle rapporte à sa mère tout ce qu'elle entend.  
 21. Ce qui me fait le plus de peine, c' est qu'il ne vient pas me voir.  
 22. Il n' y a que ceux qui ne le connoissent pas qui parlent mal de lui.  
 23. Ceux qui ont toujours vécu dans l' abondance ne savent pas ce que c' est que la faim.  
 24. Voici les bœufs que je préfère.  
 25. Ceux que vous avez sont de pauvres animaux.  
 26. Ce chien-là paroît être de la même race que celui-ci.  
 27. Oui, mais celui-ci est meilleur que celui-là.  
 28. Cet oiseau chante mieux que celui que vous avez.  
 29. Ces perdrix sont plus grosses que les perdrix Anglaises.  
 30. Ces bécasses volent plus rapidement que celles-là.  
 31. Lesquelles sont meilleures à manger ?  
 32. Celles qui volent vite, ou celles qui volent lentement ?

## EXERCISE IX.

1. Tout le monde doit recevoir le salaire de son travail.
2. Tous les hommes doivent être nourris et vêtus.
3. Chacun va où bon lui semble.
4. Les juges étoient assis, chacun à sa place.
5. Chacun d' eux donna son opinion sur cette affaire.
6. Donnez à manger à chacun des deux ; mais ne donnez rien au troisième.
7. Tout le monde sait cela, et plusieurs le disent.
8. Quelques-uns disent qu'il va quitter sa maison.
9. Plusieurs m' ont assuré qu' il vient.
10. Quelques-uns aiment cette manière de voyager.
11. Quelques-uns sont meilleurs que les autres.
12. Nous ne devons pas prendre le bien d'autrui.
13. D' autres ne font pas cela.
14. Il dépense l'argent d'autrui.
15. Ils s' envoyèrent réciproquement du fruit et des fleurs.
16. Tout est vendu dans la maison et enlevé.
17. Les moutons sont tous morts. Quoi ! tous ?
18. Quiconque prendra ce chemin y tombera.

19. Tout ce qu' on y trouve, sans en rien excepter.
20. Il causera avec le premier venu qui voudra lui parler.
21. Quiconque néglige ses affaires se ruine.
22. Je soutiendrai cela contre qui que ce soit.
23. Donnez-nous tout, quoi que ce puisse être.
24. Il réussit dans tout ce qu'il entreprend.
25. Quoiqu'il en dise, il ne l'échappera pas.
26. Quel qu' en soit le prix, vous devez le donner.
27. Quel est l'homme qui a volé votre argent ?
28. Je l'ignore, mais qui que ce puisse être, il doit être puni.
29. L'homme est pris. On ne sait qui c'est; mais qui que ce soit il sera puni.
30. Quelques prunes dans un petit panier de paille.
31. Il y avoit deux pommes, une petite quantité de cerises et quelques abricots.
32. Quelques-uns disent qu'elle sera très-riche; d'autres qu' elle ne le sera pas.
33. Quelque riche qu' elle puisse être; quelques richesses qu'elle puisse avoir.
34. Quelque belles maisons et quelque beaux jardins qu' ils aient.
35. Ils ne s' aiment pas, je vous le jure.
36. L' un ou l' autre viendra demain; mais ni l'un ni l'autre ne viendra aujourd'hui.
37. Il n' a rien fait pour moi, et il ne fera rien pour vous.
38. Rien de ce qu'ils entreprennent ne réussit.
39. Personne ne croit cela. Je ne l'ai dit à personne.
40. A-t-on jamais vu rien de pareil auparavant ?
41. Pas un de ces gens ne vint hier-soir.
42. Pas un des soldats n' échappa à l' ennemi.
43. Avez-vous des poires ? Pas une, sur ma parole.
44. Personne n' est venu avec le fruit et le vin.
45. Nous n' aimons point que les autres se mêlent de nos affaires de famille.
46. Nous mangeons quand nous avons faim, et nous buvons quand nous avons soif.
47. Nous plantons des arbres pour nos petits fils, et en ce faisant, nous agissons avec autant de justice que de sagesse.
48. Ils vont semer du blé dans ce champ; mais ils n' ont pas bien préparé la terre.
49. On dit que vous allez vous marier.
50. Je voudrais que les gens s'entretenissent de leurs propres affaires, et non des miennes.
51. On dit qu'il y a une grande récolte de blé.
52. On lui a conseillé de quitter le pays.
53. Nous menons une vie agréable; nous nous levons de bonne heure; nous nous promenons; ensuite nous déjeûnons; puis nous faisons une seconde promenade, ou bien nous montons à cheval.
54. Vous pouvez traduire des phrases, telles que celles-ci; et la dernière, d'une manière ou de l' autre,

c'est-à-dire, avec on, avec nous, ou avec vous.

55. Savez-vous qu'il y a des soldats dans la ville ? Oui, car j'en ai vu plusieurs.

56. Quel est ce bruit ? Quelle en est la cause ?

57. Où sont les dames ? Je n'en sais rien.

58. Qu'ont-ils fait de mon épée ? Je n'en sais rien.

59. Y-a-t-il beaucoup de vaisseaux dans le port ? Oui, il y en a plus de cent.

60. Si elle vient de la campagne aujourd'hui, elle y retournera demain.

61. On les loue beaucoup ; mais pas plus qu'ils ne le méritent.

62. Ils sont bien pauvres, mais plusieurs de leurs voisins ne le sont pas.

63. Cette maison est-elle à vous ? Oui, elle est à moi.

64. Voilà mon verre ; versez-y du vin.

65. Il a acheté ce domaine, il y visoit depuis longtemps.

66. Elle est venue chez elle ; elle en repartira demain.

67. Je pars pour aller voir mes plantations.

68. Ils ne se soucient de personne que d'eux-mêmes.

69. L'orgueil ne sied à personne. N'enviez point le bien d'autrui.

70. Rien n'est assez bon pour lui.

71. Ils iront l'y joindre.

72. Nous en parlâmes alors.

73. Donnez-leur-en.

74. Envoyez-leur-en.

75. Il retourne dans son pays.

76. Ils s'en sont venus promptement.

77. Il le dit, et il s'y tient.

78. Il a beaucoup de dépit contre vous.

### EXERCISE X.

1. Ils n'y ont pas été depuis quatre ou cinq ans.

2. Je ne vous donnerai pas maintenant d'aussi courtes phrases à traduire que celles que je vous ai données jusqu'à présent.

3. Il y a long-temps que vous n'avez été dans ce pays-là.

4. Je n'ai pas vu l'homme qui vint ici hier-soir.

5. Certainement, je ne vous donnerai pas plus de dix livres sterling.

6. Vous n'aurez été que six ans dans votre bureau.

7. Vous n'avez ni terres ni troupeaux.

8. Ce n'est pas un honnête homme. Ce n'est pas vrai, Monsieur.

9. Il n'y a ni paille ni foin dans le grenier.

10. Je n'ai aucun des arbres que vous m'avez vendus.

11. Je n'avois aucun des bestiaux dont il me parla.

12. Je n'en ai vu aucun depuis quelque temps.

13. Prêtez-moi de l'argent. Je ne saurois, car je n'en ai point.

14. Ont-ils été ici aujourd'hui ? Non.

15. Non que je n'aime point les gens de ce pays-là.

16. Non que je ne puisse y aller, si cela me plaît.

17. Voulez-vous venir avec moi ? Non : je ne le veux point.

8. Elle ne sait ni lire ni écrire.
9. Il ne sait ni lire ni écrire.
0. Nous ne mettrons pas à la voile demain, ni peut-être après demain.
1. Ni le maître ni le valet ne seront ici.
2. Ni lui, ni sa femme, ni ses enfans ne jouissent d'une bonne santé.
3. Ils n'ont que vingt acres de terre.
4. Nous ne leur parlons que très-rarement.
5. Il n'y a qu'un homme de bien dans la compagnie.
6. Pourquoi n'allez vous pas voir votre terre ?
7. Pourquoi habitez-vous continuellement la ville ?
8. Il ne fait que causer et chanter.
9. Ils ne savent que faire.
0. Ne vous ai-je pas dit que vous n'entreriez pas ?
1. M'avez-vous apporté un sac d'or ?—Non, en vérité.
2. Ce n'est point que le dîner me déplaît, mais je n'aime pas la manière dont on l'appête.
3. Il ne cesse de parler et de faire du bruit.
4. Ils n'osent faire ce dont ils menacent.
5. Ils ne peuvent venir demain, j'en suis très-sûr.
6. Vous ne voulez ni boire ni manger avec nous ? Et pourquoi pas, mes amis ?
7. Pourquoi ne pas vous asseoir et dîner avec nous ?
8. Non : je vous suis très-obligé ; je ne peux m'arrêter à présent.
9. Eh bien, donc, venez demain. Je ne puis vraiment pas ; ou je ne saurais vraiment.
40. Ils n'ont que du pain à manger et de l'eau à boire.
41. L'homme ne doit pas vivre de pain seulement.
42. Je ne doute pas qu'il ne vous paie ce qu'il vous doit.
43. Je ne peux écrire si je n'ai pas de lumière.
44. Je ne lui écrirai pas qu'elle ne m'écrive la première.
45. Prenez garde qu'on ne vous trompe.
46. Il y a plus de vin qu'il n'en faut.
47. Il en dit plus qu'il ne falloit.
48. Je les empêcherai de faire du mal dans la campagne.
49. Je ne nie pas que je n'aie dit qu'il étoit méchant.
50. Elle est plus vieille qu'on ne pense.
51. Elle est moins riche qu'on ne la croyoit.
52. Il est tout autre que je ne le croyois.
53. Ils sont plus à leur aise que vous ne pensiez.
54. Je crains qu'il ne vienne trop tôt.
55. Je crains qu'il ne vienne pas assez tôt.
56. Elle appréhende qu'il n'y ait une querelle.
57. Ils craignent que leur mère ne soit malade.
58. Ils ont peur que l'armée n'arrive.
59. Ils craignent que l'armée ne vienne.
60. Ne pas trop parler de l'affaire.
61. Il convient de ne point aller trop vite.
62. Croyez-vous que ceci soit trop long ? Point du tout.



63. C'est fort mal à vous de ne pas tenir votre parole.  
 64. Cet été-ci n'est-il pas bien froid ?  
 65. Pas plus froid que le dernier, quoique assez froid.

## EXERCISE XI.

1. Parlez-vous de la maison à ces messieurs ?  
 2. L'armée est-elle partie ce matin ?  
 3. Le charpentier viendra-t-il demain ?  
 4. Pourquoi ne vient-il pas tout de suite ?  
 5. Le feu prit-il à la maison lorsque vous étiez en ville ?  
 6. Richard ne vient-il pas ce soir ?  
 7. Vous frappa-t-il ?  
 8. Emmèneront-ils votre voiture et vos chevaux ?  
 9. Pensâtes-vous à cela ?  
 10. Est-ce là votre livre ? Oui, c'est mon livre.  
 11. Est-ce là votre frère ? Oui, c'est lui.  
 12. Parlez-vous très-souvent d'elle ?  
 13. Fait-il des recherches pour les marchandises qu'il a perdues ?  
 14. Nous payeront-ils ce qu'ils nous doivent ?  
 15. Nous auront-ils tout payé, quand ils nous auront payé dix livres sterling de plus ?  
 16. Y auroient-ils pensé ?  
 17. Lui en reste-t-il ?  
 18. Me le donnez-vous ?  
 19. Le lui dit-elle ?  
 20. Ne le lui dit-il point ?  
 21. Vous en parleront-ils ?  
 22. Je me lève le matin,  
 23. Je ne me lève point.  
 24. Me levé-je ?  
 25. Ne me levé-je pas ?  
 26. Ne se lève-t-il pas de bon heure ?  
 27. Ne me l'avez-vous pas dit ?  
 28. Lui a-t-elle dit cela ?  
 29. Nous l'auront-ils payé ?  
 30. Vous en auroient-ils parlé ?  
 31. Cherchâtes-vous votre gent dans sa boîte ?  
 32. Y en trouvâtes-vous ?  
 33. Ne vous frapperont-ils pas et ne vous blesseront-ils pas ?  
 34. Ne leur en parle-t-il pas ?  
 35. Ne vous auroit-il pas fait grand tort ?  
 36. Ne me le donnez-vous pas ?  
 37. Ne vous appliquez-vous pas à la langue française ?  
 38. Ne le lui dit-elle pas ?  
 39. Ne nous le donneront-ils pas ?  
 40. Ne vous en parlera-t-il pas ?  
 41. Ne me l'avez-vous pas dit ?  
 42. Ne le lui avoit-elle pas dit ?  
 43. Le blé vient-il bien de cette terre ?  
 44. Les arbres ne sont-ils très-beaux dans les îles de l'Amérique ?  
 45. Non : ils ne sont pas si beaux dans toutes les parties du pays.  
 46. Les platanes y sont très-grands ; n'est-ce pas ?  
 47. Ne vous en auroit-il parlé ?  
 48. Thomas ne viendrait-il si vous l'envoyiez quêter ?  
 49. Est-ce que tous les fais et tous les lièvres sont détruits ?  
 50. Non : mais on en a pris un grand nombre.  
 51. Je ne vous dis pas de point y aller.

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| <p>52. Je ne vous dis pas de ne point en parler.</p> <p>53. Ne pas trop parler de soi.</p> <p>54. Je lui ai dit de ne pas payer plus de vingt livres sterling.</p> <p>55. N'est-il pas colonel, ou capitaine ?</p> <p>56. La flotte ira-t-elle à la Jamaïque ?</p> <p>57. Ne croyez-vous pas qu'il fasse beau ?</p> <p>58. Vous avez de grandes propriétés, sans parler de votre argent comptant.</p> <p>59. Jean n'y sera-t-il pas plus tôt qu'il ne faut ?</p> <p>60. Je ne le crois pas.</p> <p>61. N'y voyez-vous rien du tout ?</p> <p>62. Ne vous a-t-il pas dit un mot à ce sujet ?</p> <p>63. Ne craignez-vous pas que l'argent ne vienne trop tard ?</p> <p>64. N'ont-ils vu personne aller de ce côté-là.</p> <p>65. Est-ce que les laboureurs n'ont que peu à boire et à manger ?</p> <p>66. Celui-là n'est-il pas le plus pauvre, qui a moins à manger, et moins de vêtemens pour se couvrir ?</p> <p>67. Ils ne lui pardonneront jamais, à moins qu'il ne leur demande pardon.</p> <p>68. Ma chambre n'est-elle pas très-jolie ?</p> <p>69. Cet exercice-ci n'est-il pas bien long ?</p> <p>70. Il est bien long ; mais pas plus long, j'espère, qu'il n'est utile.</p> | <p>là, toute l'année, pour ainsi dire.</p> <p>2. Il fit bien mauvais temps, en Amérique, l'automne dernier.</p> <p>3. Il pleut presque toujours dans ce pays-là.</p> <p>4. On dit qu'il ne pleut jamais à Lima.</p> <p>5. Il y a sept acres de terre, et six fort belles maisons.</p> <p>6. Il y a beaucoup de vase au fond du vivier.</p> <p>7. Vous devez bien faire attention à la manière dont vous taillez les pêchers.</p> <p>8. Il y a beaucoup d'espèces de pêches.</p> <p>9. Il y en a plusieurs dans ce jardin.</p> <p>10. Il y a des boutons à bois et des boutons à fruit.</p> <p>11. Il y eut dans la ville un cri terrible.</p> <p>12. Si ce sont des arbres de fruit à noyau que vous avez à tailler.</p> <p>13. Il y en a là une grande quantité.</p> <p>14. Comme je l'ai déjà remarqué.</p> <p>15. Il faut l'examiner, et vous assurer s'il y a un bon bourgeon à bois.</p> <p>16. Veillez à ce qu'il n'y ait pas de terrain perdu et sans récolte.</p> <p>17. Il ne faut en laisser entrer aucun.</p> <p>18. On a besoin de beau temps pour la moisson.</p> <p>19. Ne perdez pas de temps à causer ; faites ce que vous avez à faire.</p> <p>20. Tout ce qu'il y a de respectable dans le village en a bonne idée.</p> <p>21. J'ai besoin d'amis qui m'aident dans une si grande entreprise.</p> |
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## EXERCISE XII.

1. Il fait beau dans ce pays-

22. Il faut un bon terrain pour récolter de bon blé et élever de bon bétail.
23. Pour produire de bon houblon, il faut beaucoup de fumier et une bonne culture.
24. Il y en avoit vingt; il falloit tous les vingt; mais on ne nous en a laissé que sept.
25. C'est un acte que nous ne devons jamais oublier.
26. Ce fut son domestique qui le leur dit.
27. Il y eut soixante maisons de renversées par le canon.
28. Il vaut mieux rester comme vous êtes, pendant quelques mois.
29. Il vaut beaucoup mieux être pauvre et bien portant, qu'être riche et malade.
30. J'irai en France; c'est-à-dire, si je me porte bien.
31. C'est une mauvaise chose que de voyager quand on ne se porte pas bien.
32. Il est bien pénible de vous quitter dans l'état où vous vous trouvez.
33. C'est un honnête homme; c'est un frippon.
34. Il est honnête. Il est frippon. Elle est bonne et sage.
35. Ce fut votre père qui vous donna ce diamant?
36. Etoit-ce eux qui causèrent tant de mal dans ce village?
37. Ce furent eux qui coupèrent les arbres, et mirent le feu aux maisons.
38. Non: ce fut elle qui ordonna de le faire.
39. Je ne sache pas que ce fût elle qui donna l'ordre.
40. Il y a quarante ans que mon oncle est mort.
41. Il y a plus de vir je demeure ici.
42. De cette place à y a dix-sept m.
43. Combien y a-t-il sommet de la r.
44. Combien serez temps à reveni.
45. Il a travaillé qu son ouvrage.
46. Combien y a-t-il dans le parc?
47. Et combien y en l'étable?
48. Il faut avoir c pour pouvoir a un père et une.
49. Ne dois-je pas a coup de patien.
50. Ne doit-il pas eu beaucoup d' quelque part?
51. N'a-t-elle pas beaucoup de bi.
52. N'y a-t-il pas a long débat ce a.
53. Y en a-t-il jan plus long.
54. Il n'y a que ce soit pas utile.
55. Je vous prie de n'ir; je veux d ne trouvez pas.
56. Y a-t-il des vign pays?
57. Non: il n'y en a je sache. Con n'y en a aucu.
58. C'est le plus beau on ait jamais le climat est m.
59. Quelle distance vous qu'il y ait maison? croyez il soit tard a nous y arrivior.
60. Il y a quatre mi pense que nous y arriver à neu.
61. Fera-t-il nuit a

- nous y arrivions ? Non, car il fait jour maintenant jusqu' après neuf heures.
62. Il fait bien crotté depuis la dernière pluie, et il paroît qu' il pleuvra de nouveau avant demain-soir.
63. Il a fait un très-beau temps aujourd' hui.
64. Croyez-vous cela ? y a-t-il quelqu' un qui le croie ? y a-t-il quelqu' un d' eux qui ne méprise celui qui le dit ?
65. Celui qui affecte de croire que cela est vrai, n'est-il donc pas un misérable ?
12. C'est le plus grand coquin qui existe.
13. Avez-vous beaucoup de bouteilles de vin dans votre cave ?
14. Donnez-lui un peu de vin et quelques grappes de raisin.
15. Je n' ai pas beaucoup d'huile, mais j' ai beaucoup d'olives.
16. N' a-t-il pas beaucoup de chevaux, et une grande quantité de foin ?
17. Donnez-moi quelques noix, et apportez-moi un peu de ce sucre.
18. Il est aussi zélé pour une bonne, que pour une mauvaise cause.
19. Soixante mille livres sterling pour une terre et les meubles.
20. Mil huit cent vingt-huit.
21. Londres, le 4 Juin, mil huit cent vingt-huit.
22. George IV et Charles X règnent actuellement.
23. J' aime mieux un ennemi déclaré qu'un ennemi caché.
24. Vous êtes indigne de tout honneur et de toute distinction.
25. Il fut transporté de joie en la voyant arriver.
26. Ils ne méritent point de reproche à cet égard.
27. Il est propre à toute espèce d'affaires.
28. Il n' y a pas de mal qu' ils ne fassent.
29. Votre négligence nous expose à des poursuites judiciaires.
30. C' est un homme très-estimé dans ce pays-là.
31. C' est une Française ; c' est une Angloise ; c' est une Américaine.

## EXERCISE XIII.

1. La tour a quatre cent quarante pieds de hauteur.
2. Votre chambre a vingt pieds de long et dix de large.
3. Un champ carré et une grande barrière.
4. Un homme impertinent, fou et paresseux.
5. Un bœuf jeune et beau, et un joli petit chien.
6. Il est beaucoup plus vieux qu'elle.
7. Vous n' êtes pas aussi grand que lui de beaucoup.
8. Ils ont plus de six mille acres de terre.
9. C'est un très-mauvais chapeau ; le plus mauvais que j' ai eu de ma vie.
10. Il fait plus beau aujourd' hui qu' hier ; encore fait-il un temps froid et assez triste.
11. C'est la plus mauvaise route que j' aie jamais vue.

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| <p>32. Un chapeau François, un habit Anglois, un soulier Américain.</p> <p>33. Un chapeau noir, un habit bleu, des souliers blancs.</p> <p>34. Blanc comme la neige, noir comme la cheminée, lourd comme du plomb.</p> <p>35. Vous êtes plus grand que lui de deux pouces.</p> <p>36. Je ne crois pas qu'il soit aussi grand qu'elle.</p> <p>37. Ce sont les plus méchans de toute l'espèce humaine.</p> <p>38. C'est de toutes les actions la plus injuste et la plus abominable.</p> | <p>extrémité du pays autre.</p> <p>11. Les concombres et les lons viennent bien de cette terre.</p> <p>12. Le jardinier, ainsi que gens, aime les fleurs.</p> <p>13. Il s'en falloit de beaucoup qu'il fût bon, d'après que m'a dit le jardinier.</p> <p>14. La pièce de terre où étoient plantés les arbustes.</p> <p>15. La haie où croissoient épines.</p> <p>16. Les plantations que le grand-père fit.</p> <p>17. La maison qu'habitent frère et la sœur.</p> <p>18. Le panier où l'on a mis fleurs.</p> <p>19. Il y a un mois que le mité tient séance.</p> <p>20. Ils n'auront pas fini deux mois.</p> |
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## EXERCISE XIV.

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| <p>1. Nous voyons tous les jours des choses pareilles à celle-là.</p> <p>2. Ni les menaces ni l'argent ne le feront cesser de s'en plaindre.</p> <p>3. Les charpentiers ou les maçons finiront leur ouvrage demain.</p> <p>4. Lui ou elle payera le dîner et le vin.</p> <p>5. Ce furent eux qui dirent qu'elle devoit s'en aller.</p> <p>6. On n'a pas seulement emporté l'avoine et le foin, mais on a même emporté la paille de la cour.</p> <p>7. Jean, Paul, Etienne, Marie et leur mère écriront demain.</p> <p>8. Jean, Paul, Etienne et vous, vous écrirez demain.</p> <p>9. Votre frère et elle ont beaucoup lu aujourd'hui.</p> <p>10. Mon grand-père et moi, nous avons voyagé d'une</p> | <p>21. Le peuple a été fort tranquille.</p> <p>22. Ils ont été extrêmement bien traités.</p> <p>23. Personne ne peut les tromper.</p> <p>24. Le meilleur moyen est de leur dire la vérité.</p> <p>25. Il hait le peuple, et il dit toujours du mal.</p> <p>26. Je vous donnerai une sterling, dit-il, si vous dites la vérité.</p> <p>27. Ah! dirent-ils, nous avons donc attrapé.</p> <p>28. Non, répondis-je, vous m'avez point attrapé.</p> <p>29. Eh bien! leur dit-il, parlez plus.</p> <p>30. Partez aussitôt que vous pourrez, je vous en prie.</p> <p>31. Nous sommes, elle et les propriétaires de bois.</p> <p>32. Ils désirent leur écrire.</p> |
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3. Le treffle et le sainfoin viennent bien dans ce terrain.
4. Ils sont excellens pour toute espèce de bestiaux.
5. Les navets ou les betteraves sont bons pour les vaches en hiver.
5. On ne vend dans la ville ni paille ni foin.
7. La plus grande partie du monde fait de même.
3. Une grande partie de ses amis le quittèrent.
3. Les plantes curieuses que m' a données mon ami.
1. Le peintre que ma sœur a envoyé.
1. Le peintre qui a envoyé ma sœur.
2. L' imprimeur que le peuple aime tant.
3. L' imprimeur qui aime tant le peuple.
1. Je plante de la laitue et du céleri.
5. Donnez-moi un peu de l'un et de l'autre, s' il vous plaît.

## EXERCISE XV.

1. Le guide qui conduisoit l'observateur duquel je tiens la description, lui rapporta que, quelque temps avant la guerre qui se termina par la paix de Ryswick, ayant mené les Allemands à cet endroit, ils le trouvèrent couvert de neige.
2. Le palais étoit un temple dédié aux dieux tutélaires. Il étoit de forme oblongue, et avoit huit colonnes de chaque côté, en longueur, et quatre le long de chaque extrémité;

ce qui faisoit en tout vingt-quatre colonnes, dont huit subsistèrent jusqu'au moment où on les abattit pour agrandir le château.

3. La fontaine qu'on nomme d'Audège, jette une si grande quantité d'eau, qu'elle forme un ruisseau très-utile aux tanneurs qui demeurent dans les faubourgs.
4. Etudiez-vous bien, et ne négligez-vous aucune partie de votre devoir ?
5. Lorsqu' il aura fini de bâtir sa maison, il ira à la campagne.
6. Quand elle ira à la ville, elle y trouvera un grand nombre d'amis qui seront bien aises de la voir.
7. Tout ce qu'on peut faire pour lui, on le doit faire.
8. Il a été fort maltraité par ceux qui lui devoient beaucoup.
9. Elle étoit très-malade et souffroit excessivement. Ils firent tout ce qu' ils purent pour la soulager.
10. Il a été à l'église.
11. Elle tomba du haut de la maison.
12. Ils s'en allèrent l'année dernière.
13. Nous n'avons pas été au spectacle.
14. Il alla se coucher hier-soir à dix heures.
15. Il s'étoit couché de meilleure heure.
16. Ils se lèvent de bon matin.
17. Nous nous levions, tous les jours, à quatre heures.
18. Vous devriez vous lever de meilleure heure que vous ne le faites.

## EXERCISE XVI.

1. Elle n'est point assez riche pour vivre sans travailler.
2. Il fit cela pour provoquer ses frères et ses sœurs.
3. Ils seront trop sages pour empêcher qu'on ne cultive la terre.
4. Que mérite-t-il pour avoir livré son pays à son plus mortel ennemi ?
5. Des milliers d'aventuriers ont fait leur fortune en venant ici.
6. Ce n'est pas être sage que de bâtir une maison sur un terrain si stérile.
7. Étudiez sans cesse, si vous êtes en bonne santé.
8. Donnez aux pauvres plutôt que de les dépouiller.
9. Quelque peu de moyens (qu'elle ait, elle n'en fait pas moins une jolie figure.
10. C'est à vous à leur parler d'une affaire qui vous concerne.
11. Il convient que vous preniez des mesures efficaces pour le punir.
12. Il est excessivement adonné au vice honteux du jeu.
13. Je suis las de vivre ici et de ne rien faire.
14. Allez dire à mon homme d'affaires de venir le plus tôt qu'il pourra.
15. Allez vous informer de notre voisin qui étoit si malade l'autre jour.
16. Ils se réjouissent beaucoup de ce que vous avez triomphé de vos ennemis.
17. En allant à Londres, vous gagnerez beaucoup.
18. En veillant à vos affaires, vous vous rendrez heureux, ainsi que vos parents.
19. Je désire de tout mon cœur que vous le fassiez.
20. Je ne connois rien de plus heureux que cela.
21. Il vaut mieux qu'un pays soit détruit, que d'être gouverné par des méchants.
22. Il valoit mieux qu'il allât à cheval qu'en voiture.
23. Il importe beaucoup qu'ils se déclarent formellement.
24. Je ne crois pas qu'il fasse beau demain.
25. Si le beau temps commence et continue pendant quelques jours.
26. C'est le plus grand coquin qui soit au monde.
27. Il s'est sauvé la vie en venant en Angleterre.
28. Il est très-agréable d'aller en France pendant l'été.
29. Faucher ou moissonner est un ouvrage pénible.
30. Il ne vous sied point d'être si délicat sur cet article.
31. Quoi qu'ils en disent, c'est une mauvaise affaire.
32. Je ne connois rien qui irrite plus que cela.
33. Peu de choses sont plus deshonorantes que le mensonge.
34. Boire à l'excès rend un homme méprisable.
35. Manger, boire et dormir sont des choses nécessaires.
36. Je suis fort fâché que votre frère ne soit pas venu.
37. Pourquoi ne viendrait-il pas la semaine prochaine ?
38. Il paroît qu'ils sont partis de très-bonne heure.
39. Est-il bien certain que la ville soit prise ?
40. Il est bien certain que la ville est prise.
41. Il est clair comme le jour que ce malheur arrivera.

12. Il n' est pas bien certain que ce malheur arrive.
13. Il étoit évident qu' il ne pouvoit se défendre lui-même.
14. Il n' étoit pas certain qu' il ne pût se défendre lui-même.
15. Il me semble que vous avez tort.
16. Il semble qu' il a tort.
17. Il n' est ni juste ni convenable qu' il le fasse.
18. Croyez-vous venir Samedi prochain ?
19. Plût-à-Dieu qu'il se portât bien !
20. Si vous perdiez votre fortune, il faudroit vous en aller.
21. Dieu veuille qu'elle recouvre la santé.
22. Vous dites qu' elle se rétablira ; Dieu le veuille !
23. J' espère qu' elle ne mourra pas : Dieu l'en préserve !
24. A Dieu ne plaise que je fasse pareille chose !
25. Quoi ! nous leur pardonnerions cette faute.
26. Que voulez-vous que je fasse ?
27. Je veux que vous vous leviez de bonne heure, et que vous soyez laborieux.
28. J' ai besoin d' une bonne scie, pensez-vous que j'en trouve une ?
29. Je crois que vous n'en trouverez pas dans le village.
30. Je ne doute pas que vous n'en trouviez dans la ville.
31. Il faudra qu' ils se donnent bien des soins pour le supprimer.
32. Je n' en doute nullement, je l'avoue.
33. Je doute qu' il le fasse.
34. Je doute qu' il ne le fasse pas.
35. Je ne crois pas qu' elle vienne la semaine prochaine.
36. Le mal vient de ce qu' il leur a parlé.
37. Leur babillage a mis leur maître en colère.
38. Le ramage des oiseaux est ravissant.
39. Ce que j' aime le plus dans les oiseaux, c' est leur ramage.
40. Quoiqu' il vende sa terre, il ne sera pas ruiné.
41. Il fut tué dans la dernière guerre.
42. Les tentes ont été prises par l' ennemi.
43. Les tentes que l' ennemi a prises.
44. Quelles tentes a-t-il prises ?
45. Il a pris toutes les tentes que nous avions.
46. Je suis surpris que vous l' ayez fait.
47. Ils écrivent dans ma chambre.
48. Vous avez perdu votre argent pour ne l' avoir pas demandé.
49. Il est très-indécent de se conduire de la sorte.
50. Mon père cherché une grande et belle ferme.
51. Ils sont fort en colère que vous ayez pu le faire.
52. Ils insistent absolument à ce qu' elle ne reste pas plus long-temps.
53. Nous fîmes tous très-surpris.
54. Il y a quatre hommes qui plantent des arbres.
55. Je vois les lévriers qui courent après le lièvre.
56. Apportez-nous du café qui soit bon et chaud.



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| <p>87. Ayens un gigot de mouton gros et gras.</p> <p>88. Je suis loin de dire ou de penser qu' elle mourra.</p> <p>89. Le voici qui vient pour s'informer de votre santé.</p> <p>90. Voici mon fouet: voici le vôtre: voilà le leur.</p> <p>91. Croyez-vous que je vous donne pour rien ma maison et mes meubles?</p> <p>92. Le blé s' est vendu dans le marché.</p> <p>93. Les pommes lui furent vendues.</p> <p>94. Les bœufs furent vendus la semaine passée.</p> <p>95. Les vaches ont été vendues cette semaine.</p> | <p>11. Il s'en ira d'ici, et son frère aussi.</p> <p>12. Nous vendrons notre blé et notre vin, et ils vendront les leurs.</p> <p>13. Ils auront tout ce que je ne dois point garder.</p> <p>14. Je veux bien que vous restiez-ici.</p> <p>15. Mais je ne peux vous donner à manger et à boire.</p> <p>16. Cela peut-il être? Que me peut-il vouloir?</p> <p>17. Que nous veulent-ils?</p> <p>18. Se peut-il qu' ils aient besoin de notre argent.</p> <p>19. Se peut-il qu' il y ait d'aussi méchantes gens dans le monde?</p> <p>20. Désiroient-ils voir la ville en feu?</p> <p>21. Voulez-vous des haricots ou des pois?</p> <p>22. Je n' ai besoin ni des uns ni des autres.</p> <p>23. Que voulez-vous donc?</p> <p>24. Aura-t-elle des fleurs?</p> <p>25. Veut-elle de celles que j'ai semées.</p> <p>26. Plût-à-Dieu qu'ils se levassent de bonne heure!</p> <p>27. A Dieu ne plaise que j'aie un tas de dormeurs dans ma maison!</p> <p>28. Dût-il m' en coûter la vie.</p> <p>29. N' aurait-il pas pu lui demander ce qu' elle vouloit dire?</p> <p>30. Il auroit pu le faire; mais elle auroit pu lui refuser de répondre.</p> <p>31. Ne devriez-vous pas le forcer de répondre?</p> <p>32. Pourroit-on trouver une route comparable à celle-là?</p> <p>33. N'y a-t-il point ici un grand nombre de questions?</p> <p>34. Pouvez-vous en trouver davantage dans un même</p> |
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### EXERCISE XVII.

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| <p>1. Maintenant, je vais vous donner le dix-septième exercice.</p> <p>2. Sera-t-il long ou court?</p> <p>3. Si je trouvais votre fils, je l' enverrois à la maison.</p> <p>4. Il feroit promptement fortune s'il pouvoit exploiter les mines.</p> <p>5. Feriez-vous bientôt fortune, si vous parveniez à les exploiter?</p> <p>6. Je ne peux monter ce mauvais cheval sans m' exposer à me casser le cou.</p> <p>7. Vous et lui, vous pourriez prendre cette liberté; mais elle ne sauroit le faire.</p> <p>8. Elle ne doit pas le faire sous quelque rapport que ce soit.</p> <p>9. Vous devriez lui donner cette ferme.</p> <p>10. S'il pouvoit la leur donner il le feroit,</p> | <p>11. Il s'en ira d'ici, et son frère aussi.</p> <p>12. Nous vendrons notre blé et notre vin, et ils vendront les leurs.</p> <p>13. Ils auront tout ce que je ne dois point garder.</p> <p>14. Je veux bien que vous restiez-ici.</p> <p>15. Mais je ne peux vous donner à manger et à boire.</p> <p>16. Cela peut-il être? Que me peut-il vouloir?</p> <p>17. Que nous veulent-ils?</p> <p>18. Se peut-il qu' ils aient besoin de notre argent.</p> <p>19. Se peut-il qu' il y ait d'aussi méchantes gens dans le monde?</p> <p>20. Désiroient-ils voir la ville en feu?</p> <p>21. Voulez-vous des haricots ou des pois?</p> <p>22. Je n' ai besoin ni des uns ni des autres.</p> <p>23. Que voulez-vous donc?</p> <p>24. Aura-t-elle des fleurs?</p> <p>25. Veut-elle de celles que j'ai semées.</p> <p>26. Plût-à-Dieu qu'ils se levassent de bonne heure!</p> <p>27. A Dieu ne plaise que j'aie un tas de dormeurs dans ma maison!</p> <p>28. Dût-il m' en coûter la vie.</p> <p>29. N' aurait-il pas pu lui demander ce qu' elle vouloit dire?</p> <p>30. Il auroit pu le faire; mais elle auroit pu lui refuser de répondre.</p> <p>31. Ne devriez-vous pas le forcer de répondre?</p> <p>32. Pourroit-on trouver une route comparable à celle-là?</p> <p>33. N'y a-t-il point ici un grand nombre de questions?</p> <p>34. Pouvez-vous en trouver davantage dans un même</p> |
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- espace, dans un livre  
quelconque ?
35. Peuvent-ils être en colère  
contre moi ?
  36. Y aura-t-il des œufs pour  
souper ?
  37. Mes yeux s'obscurciront.
  38. Ferai-je un nœud à la fi-  
celle ?
  39. Il seroit vivement affligé  
s'il perdoit sa cause.
  40. Ce livre devroit contenir  
400 feuilles.
  41. Vous devriez cueillir des  
fleurs.
  42. Ils seront en deuil la se-  
maine prochaine.
  43. Son œil sera bientôt guéri.
  44. Je voudrois qu'ils vinssent  
de suite.
  45. Il pourroit s'en aller s'il  
vouloit.
  46. Qu'ils viennent quand il  
leur plaira.
  47. Il devoit partir pour Paris  
la semaine dernière.
  48. Vous devriez leur dire ce  
que vous en pensez.
  49. Il peut se faire qu'ils s'en  
aillent.
  50. Il peut se faire qu'ils ne sa-  
chent pas écrire.
  51. Peut-elle venir ? Peut-être,  
ou il peut se faire qu'elle  
puisse.
  52. Vous ne devriez pas le  
prendre.
5. Elle vint hier et avant-hier.
  6. Il y avoit jadis des arbres  
dans ce champ.
  7. Ils me le dirent auparavant.
  8. Il faut que vous veniez ici  
demain.
  9. Je vous prie de m'écrire  
bientôt.
  10. Je mange souvent des ce-  
rises et des pommes.
  11. Ils finiront bientôt leur ou-  
vrage.
  12. Nous écrirons demain ou  
après demain.
  13. Il ira bientôt voir son père.
  14. L'affaire se terminera la  
semaine prochaine.
  15. Où ont-ils été pendant tout  
ce temps ?
  16. Donnez-leur à manger de  
temps en temps.
  17. D'où vient tout ce monde ?
  18. Pourquoi viennent-ils tous  
ici ?
  19. Qui les engage à passer  
par ici ?
  20. Il leur est plus facile d'al-  
ler par là.
  21. Ils partent d'ici, chaque  
jour, à une heure.
  22. Quand vous monterez, vous  
resterez en haut.
  23. On ne peut le trouver nulle  
part.
  24. Il y a trop d'eau dans votre  
vin.
  25. Peut-être le verrez-vous  
tantôt.
  26. Ils l'ont dit en plaisantant ;  
mais ce n'est que trop vrai.
  27. Ils écrivent et lisent sans  
cesse.
  28. On la prit de force.
  29. Cela est bien méchant de  
leur part.
  30. Vous parlez à tort et à  
travers.
  31. Combien de fois y avez-  
vous été ?
  32. Quelle distance y a-t-il

## EXERCISE XVIII.

1. Ils l'ignorent pour l'in-  
stant.
2. Ils ne montent plus à che-  
val maintenant.
3. C'est la mode maintenant  
d'aller à pied.
4. Je vais le faire tout de  
suite.
5. Elle vint hier et avant-hier.
6. Il y avoit jadis des arbres  
dans ce champ.
7. Ils me le dirent auparavant.
8. Il faut que vous veniez ici  
demain.
9. Je vous prie de m'écrire  
bientôt.
10. Je mange souvent des ce-  
rises et des pommes.
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30. Vous parlez à tort et à  
travers.
31. Combien de fois y avez-  
vous été ?
32. Quelle distance y a-t-il

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| <p>87. Ayons un gigot de mouton gros et gras.</p> <p>88. Je suis loin de dire ou de penser qu' elle mourra.</p> <p>89. Le voici qui vient pour s'informer de votre santé.</p> <p>90. Voici mon fouet : voici le vôtre : voilà le leur.</p> <p>91. Croyez-vous que je vous donne pour rien ma maison et mes meubles ?</p> <p>92. Le blé s' est vendu dans le marché.</p> <p>93. Les pommes lui furent vendues.</p> <p>94. Les bœufs furent vendus la semaine passée.</p> <p>95. Les vaches ont été vendues cette semaine.</p> | <p>11. Il s'en ira d'ici, et son frère aussi.</p> <p>12. Nous vendrons notre blé et notre vin, et ils vendront les leurs.</p> <p>13. Ils auront tout ce que je ne dois point garder.</p> <p>14. Je veux bien que vous restiez-ici.</p> <p>15. Mais je ne peux vous donner à manger et à boire.</p> <p>16. Cela peut-il être ? Que me peut-il vouloir ?</p> <p>17. Que nous veulent-ils ?</p> <p>18. Se peut-il qu' ils aient besoin de notre argent.</p> <p>19. Se peut-il qu' il y ait d' aussi méchantes gens dans le monde ?</p> <p>20. Désiroient-ils voir la ville en feu ?</p> <p>21. Voulez-vous des haricots ou des pois ?</p> <p>22. Je n' ai besoin ni des uns ni des autres.</p> <p>23. Que voulez-vous donc ?</p> <p>24. Aura-t-elle des fleurs ?</p> <p>25. Veut-elle de celles que j' ai semées.</p> <p>26. Plût-à-Dieu qu' ils se levassent de bonne heure !</p> <p>27. A Dieu ne plaise que j' aie un tas de dormeurs dans ma maison !</p> <p>28. Dût-il m' en coûter la vie.</p> <p>29. N' aurait-il pas pu lui demander ce qu' elle vouloit dire ?</p> <p>30. Il auroit pu le faire ; mais elle auroit pu lui refuser de répondre.</p> <p>31. Ne devriez-vous pas le forcer de répondre ?</p> <p>32. Pourroit-on trouver une route comparable à celle-là ?</p> <p>33. N' y a-t-il point ici un grand nombre de questions ?</p> <p>34. Pouvez-vous en trouver davantage dans un même</p> |
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## EXERCISE XVII.

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| <p>1. Maintenant, je vais vous donner le dix-septième exercice.</p> <p>2. Sera-t-il long ou court ?</p> <p>3. Si je trouvois votre fils, je l' enverrois à la maison.</p> <p>4. Il feroit promptement fortune s'il pouvoit exploiter les mines.</p> <p>5. Feriez-vous bientôt fortune, si vous parveniez à les exploiter ?</p> <p>6. Je ne peux monter ce mauvais cheval sans m' exposer à me casser le cou.</p> <p>7. Vous et lui, vous pourriez prendre cette liberté ; mais elle ne sauroit le faire.</p> <p>8. Elle ne doit pas le faire sous quelque rapport que ce soit.</p> <p>9. Vous devriez lui donner cette ferme.</p> <p>10. S'il pouvoit la leur donner il le feroit,</p> | <p>11. Il s'en ira d'ici, et son frère aussi.</p> <p>12. Nous vendrons notre blé et notre vin, et ils vendront les leurs.</p> <p>13. Ils auront tout ce que je ne dois point garder.</p> <p>14. Je veux bien que vous restiez-ici.</p> <p>15. Mais je ne peux vous donner à manger et à boire.</p> <p>16. Cela peut-il être ? Que me peut-il vouloir ?</p> <p>17. Que nous veulent-ils ?</p> <p>18. Se peut-il qu' ils aient besoin de notre argent.</p> <p>19. Se peut-il qu' il y ait d' aussi méchantes gens dans le monde ?</p> <p>20. Désiroient-ils voir la ville en feu ?</p> <p>21. Voulez-vous des haricots ou des pois ?</p> <p>22. Je n' ai besoin ni des uns ni des autres.</p> <p>23. Que voulez-vous donc ?</p> <p>24. Aura-t-elle des fleurs ?</p> <p>25. Veut-elle de celles que j' ai semées.</p> <p>26. Plût-à-Dieu qu' ils se levassent de bonne heure !</p> <p>27. A Dieu ne plaise que j' aie un tas de dormeurs dans ma maison !</p> <p>28. Dût-il m' en coûter la vie.</p> <p>29. N' aurait-il pas pu lui demander ce qu' elle vouloit dire ?</p> <p>30. Il auroit pu le faire ; mais elle auroit pu lui refuser de répondre.</p> <p>31. Ne devriez-vous pas le forcer de répondre ?</p> <p>32. Pourroit-on trouver une route comparable à celle-là ?</p> <p>33. N' y a-t-il point ici un grand nombre de questions ?</p> <p>34. Pouvez-vous en trouver davantage dans un même</p> |
|--|---|

- espace, dans un livre  
quelconque ?
35. Peuvent-ils être en colère contre moi ?
  36. Y aura-t-il des œufs pour souper ?
  37. Mes yeux s'obscurciront.
  38. Feraï-je un nœud à la ficelle ?
  39. Il seroit vivement affligé s'il perdoit sa cause.
  40. Ce livre devoit contenir 400 feuilles.
  41. Vous devriez cueillir des fleurs.
  42. Ils seront en deuil la semaine prochaine.
  43. Son œil sera bientôt guéri.
  44. Je voudrois qu'ils vinssent de suite.
  45. Il pourroit s'en aller s'il vouloit.
  46. Qu'ils viennent quand il leur plaira.
  47. Il devoit partir pour Paris la semaine dernière.
  48. Vous devriez leur dire ce que vous en pensez.
  49. Il peut se faire qu'ils s'en aillent.
  50. Il peut se faire qu'ils ne sachent pas écrire.
  51. Peut-elle venir ? Peut-être, ou il peut se faire qu'elle puisse.
  52. Vous ne devriez pas le prendre.
  5. Elle vint hier et avant-hier.
  6. Il y avoit jadis des arbres dans ce champ.
  7. Ils me le dirent auparavant.
  8. Il faut que vous veniez ici demain.
  9. Je vous prie de m'écrire bientôt.
  10. Je mange souvent des cerises et des pommes.
  11. Ils finiront bientôt leur ouvrage.
  12. Nous écrirons demain ou après demain.
  13. Il ira bientôt voir son père.
  14. L'affaire se terminera la semaine prochaine.
  15. Où ont-ils été pendant tout ce temps ?
  16. Donnez-leur à manger de temps en temps.
  17. D'où vient tout ce monde ?
  18. Pourquoi viennent-ils tous ici ?
  19. Qui les engage à passer par ici ?
  20. Il leur est plus facile d'aller par là.
  21. Ils partent d'ici, chaque jour, à une heure.
  22. Quand vous monterez, vous resterez en haut.
  23. On ne peut le trouver nulle part.
  24. Il y a trop d'eau dans votre vin.
  25. Peut-être le verrez-vous tantôt.
  26. Ils l'ont dit en plaisantant ; mais ce n'est que trop vrai.
  27. Ils écrivent et lisent sans cesse.
  28. On la prit de force.
  29. Cela est bien méchant de leur part.
  30. Vous parlez à tort et à travers.
  31. Combien de fois y avez-vous été ?
  32. Quelle distance y a-t-il

## EXERCISE XVIII.

1. Ils l'ignorent pour l'instant.
2. Ils ne montent plus à cheval maintenant.
3. C'est la mode maintenant d'aller à pied.
4. Je vais le faire tout de suite.
28. On la prit de force.
29. Cela est bien méchant de leur part.
30. Vous parlez à tort et à travers.
31. Combien de fois y avez-vous été ?
32. Quelle distance y a-t-il

d'ici au champ de froment ?

33. Je sais bien ce que vous voulez dire.

### EXERCISE XIX.

1. Avez-vous pensé à l'affaire dont je vous ai parlé ?
2. Oui ; mais je ne sais que faire à ce sujet.
3. A qui appartient ce livre ? Il appartient à Jean, ou à sa sœur.
4. Il faut que la maison soit bâtie d'ici à la Noël.
5. Ils se battirent à la baïonnette et à l'épée.
6. Vous jouissiez de vos richesses.
7. Ils demeurent près de votre maison de campagne.
8. Vous devriez obéir à votre maître.

### EXERCISE XX.

1. Que vous le fassiez ou non, je viendrai.
2. Un grand bâtiment ou de brique ou de pierre.
3. Il les loua par amour, ou par crainte.
4. Que deviendrions-nous s'ils venoient à mourir ?
5. Que diriez-vous s'ils y consentoient ?
6. Quand vous écrirez, faites-le-moi savoir.
7. Quand ils viendront, ils resteront long-temps.
8. Si vous désirez vous en aller, et être de retour à temps.
9. S'ils le veulent, et qu'ils le payent.
10. S'il donnoit même toute sa fortune.

THE END.

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